

THE CHARITIES REVIEW

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Institution Fires.

It is nearly a year since we last had occasion to note any specially disastrous institution fires. The season of overheated flues has returned, however, and the story begins once more. It is hardly worth while to try to locate specifically the responsibility for the fire at the Rochester orphan asylum by which some thirty of the inmates have met their death. Of course, the building was inflammable; of course, there was no night-watchman; of course, there was not any very good way of getting out in a hurry: these things cost money, and charitable institutions must economize. In possibly five hundred other institutions in this country the conditions which made the Rochester disaster are duplicated. No one thinks of accusing the management of any of these institutions of criminal negligence. On the contrary they are felt to be showing a commendable spirit of thrift in getting along with the least possible drain on their contributors. For instance, the managers of the Buffalo orphan asylum, with perhaps 150 inmates in an old building of

wood and brick of the rapid-burning type, with wooden staircases, supplemented by two narrow iron ladders, with no night-watchman, and with no fire-drill, are said to be patiently plodding along in the hope of a new fireproof building some day; in the meantime "doing the best they can with the money which charitable people have given them to work with." The Rochester society happened to get caught; the Buffalo institution to escape. The conditions were identical, and the responsibility is identical.

Faint-Hearted "Economy"

One of the fortunate characteristics of American charities is their direct and continuous dependence upon the community for financial support. There is yet very little of the soporific endowment which laid its heavy hand on the institutions of the middle ages and set them away, each after its kind, to sleep through renaissance and reform, with no touch of new life or of new purpose, a drag to society, too often a curse to their beneficiaries,—in the end to be the victims of revolution. The

American institution, be it public or private, must continuously demonstrate, to a very discriminating public, its right to further support. It can not stand out against public criticism. It must keep up with the popular conception of its functions, or fail of indorsement. On the other hand, the public, knowing that its charities must have support in order to exist, is prepared to give to them in proportion to their needs and their merits. If this statement be thought too confident, it may at least be granted that society knows that its dependent members must be cared for in some way, lest they prove a menace to it, and it is prepared to drive a bargain with anyone who will do the work effectively at the minimum of necessary cost. If some board of managers which is struggling along with an income insufficient to meet the genuine needs of its beneficiaries doubts this, let it squarely face the proposition. Let it state its needs to the public clearly and tactfully, and assert its unwillingness to go on further, for instance, in a fire-trap building. The public will either believe it and believe in it, and come to the rescue; or it will not come to the rescue,—which is a direct intimation that the managers would do well to give up their trust and leave it to the public to assign their functions to others.

Frankly, some of our boards lack "sand." Since everyone else is doing the same thing, we can not particularly blame the Rochester man-

agers that they did not come down flat-footedly and say that they would get money to improve their fire protection, or shut up shop. They, doubtless, did not realize the gravity of their situation. But with this one more terrible example of what the "economy" which does without essentials means, there is little excuse for that delinquent board which spreads out its hands and says it has done the best it could with the money given it. Why does it not get more money, or refuse to continue its responsibilities? In the course of each year not a few instances come to our attention in which institutions or societies, well known in their communities, have at last, by the pressure of public criticism, or the urgency of some supervising state board, or by their own desperate needs, been driven to choose between better equipment and extinction. Where the society coming to this crisis has been worthy of support, it has received it, in the full measure demanded, and has taken on a new lease of life. It need hardly be said, parenthetically, that it takes time for a charity, just as for a business enterprise to become known to the public at its exact value. But once known, the institution which will suffer its work to be stunted, or risk the safety of human life, rather than throw the responsibility squarely on the public, and accept the public's verdict, may not rank among the philanthropies of the new century.

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**Ignorance
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Indifference.**

But economy is not the only factor in evidence in our annual list of fire fatalities. Inexcusable indifference on the part of managers, coupled with inexcusable indolence on the part of superintendents, brings about a condition of affairs such as is reported in a statement before us, presumably correct, regarding a fire in the insane annex of a county almshouse in Ohio. Here, it is stated, the discovery of the fire so demoralized the attendants that the keys to the "cells" were lost, and doors had to be broken open. One old man could not get out. Aside from the fact that if Ohio legislators had a keener eye for lasting economy there would have been no insane "cells" in this almshouse, it is perfectly evident that the superintendent of this particular institution had not seriously considered what he and his helpers would do in case fire broke out.

**The Use
of State
Boards.**

It is just at this point that the value of a state supervisory board comes in. So long as the local overseers are the final arbiters in all matters relating to the almshouse, so long will there be found some institutions run with complete indifference to the welfare of inmates; some with a robust kind of care which means well, but which knows little; none with the complete equipment of experience which an inspecting and advising board carries from one institution to another and from other

states to its own. Who is to suggest to the isolated county superintendent the utility of a fire-drill if not the state board? But, doubtless, the board of state charities of Ohio had already been after the officials of this infirmary to secure better fire protection; perhaps had urged it upon them more than once. If Ohio's experience is like that of other states, the board may have found it difficult to enforce its suggestions. State boards of charity are not yet very strongly established in the American body politic, and their power, even when statutory or constitutional, has yet to be enforced with the utmost mildness and indulgence, lest they lose what hold they have. Scarcely a legislative season passes in which an effort is not made in several states to overthrow or cripple these boards, either to satisfy the spoilsman or to wreak vengeance for some "interference" on the part of the board for better conditions in institutions. Even in New York, whose board has so long and so clearly demonstrated its worth in the supervision of charitable institutions, there was felt some apprehension lest the periodical attack made on this board would this winter prove stronger than the friends of non-partisan methods in state charities could resist. But at the time of writing a most vigorous resistance to the proposed modification of the board, which would make it practically a single-headed commission, has developed, and Governor Odell finds arrayed against him

in his proposition to turn over the supervision of the vast charities of the state to a partisan commission the organized opposition of the philanthropic workers of the entire state. It would be a hardy governor and an impolitic legislature which would measure itself against this new charity of the new century, a charity which does its economizing by cutting down to the roots of pauperism and crime, not by refraining from buying spades and axes. The administration of charity is no longer solely a question of boarding and lodging at minimum cost all paupers who can not be shipped out of the community. It involves the ordering, disciplining, and repression of a vast body of self-perpetuating social parasites, the treatment of social defects, the education of the state's dependent children, the kindly sheltering of its aged and infirm. To all this helpless company, in the state of New York some sixty thousand souls in all, the state board of charity is the court of last appeal. If they find there, not a judicial court, but a triumvirate formed for political purposes, where else shall they look for justice, to say nothing of mercy? And if this dumb host by some injudicious policy have suffered once, who shall remember the former harm, when in the cycle of years or in new localities this plan is proposed again, if there be no slowly changing supervisory board to act as the state's memory? How could a biennial triumvirate remember?

The Old Way.

The state of Maine, which, by the way, has an extraordinary record for administrative extravagance—they always object to the establishment of a department to supervise expenditures, on the plea of economy—has not yet come to have a state board of charity. The country towns are allowed to take care of the poor to suit themselves, and neighborly custom determines more rules of procedure than the statutes. One of these happy customs is the practice of the officers of towns of marrying off their female paupers to men of other towns in order to be rid of the burden of their support. The latest case of this character was the marriage of a young feeble-minded woman to a half-witted old soldier, except for his pension pittance as penniless as herself. The result was a lawsuit between the towns concerned; and the annual cost of suits of this kind is said to be enough "to take care of all the paupers and keep the town roads in good condition besides." This is saying nothing of the price which the state will have to pay in caring for the offspring—idiot, depraved, criminal—which is the inevitable fruit of these unions.

With all respect to, and perhaps some personal touch of regard for, that sturdy local independence which resents the "interference" of centralized authority, the evidence is so completely against the decentralization of administration in charity,—at least of supervision of charity,—

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that one is compelled to admit that the successful introduction of a central supervising board of charity is for any state a distinct step toward both economy and humanity. On the other hand, any effort to cripple such a board, even on the ground that it does its appointed work unsatisfactorily, must be made facing the only alternative to these boards that history has yet given,—indifference to the welfare of public wards, varying from simple neglect to medieval inhumanity; economy, if any at all, that stints the beans of to-day while it breeds the beggars of to-morrow; discipline that restrains and rebuffs the hungry and sick, but keeps open house to the calloused vagabond; education for the child with almshouse for kindergarten, workhouse for intermediate, and jail, hospital, or asylum for the finishing touches.

**Indiana's
Experience.**

We have just at hand the recent biennial message of the late Governor James A. Mount to the legislature of Indiana. Regarding the board of state charities, he says:

During the four years of my administration I have been in close touch with the work of this board. Its influence has been for good. It has steadfastly stood for the merit system in our state institutions. It has, with keen penetration and unflagging energy, studied the needs of the unfortunate wards of the state, and how to provide for them in the manner most conducive to their welfare and for the best interest of the commonwealth. The condition of

county jails, infirmaries, orphans' homes, the charitable, reformatory, and penal institutions have all been studied, and through the wise suggestions of this board great reforms have been inaugurated, and homes found for orphan and dependent children. This has been a work of love, and this arduous and valuable service has been rendered without salary. The legislature has at each succeeding session enlarged their duties, thus entailing additional expense. I recommend an increase in the appropriation to this work. No money expended in the state brings a better return than that placed at the disposal of this board.

The story of the rescue of the Indiana institutions from the political spoilsman has often appeared in one form or another in the REVIEW, but the light it throws on the present discussion, and the opportunity it affords us of paying tribute to the memory of the man whose influence predominated and inspired the movement, leads us to bring the threads together in more consecutive form than heretofore, and tell the story in its entirety:

The great reform in Indiana began somewhere in 1883 or 1885, at which time the institutions of the state were entirely dominated by the idea of spoils. Conditions got worse up to 1889, when some improvement began. The board of state charities created by the legislature of this year became the centre around which efforts for improvement could rally. In 1895, with a

republican house and senate, and a democratic governor, a law was passed, requiring the governor to appoint eighteen trustees for six institutions, not more than nine from one political party, the idea being to divide the trusteeship equally so as to avoid partisanship in their appointees. Already, in 1887, two institutions, the schools for soldiers' orphans and for the feeble-minded, had been given a very clear non-partisan law. Under this law they had worked well, and nobody suspected them of offensive partisanship. Governor Matthews, the executive at the time of the enactment of the law of 1895, rose to the dignity of the occasion, and instead of appointing (as he might) nine staunch democrats and nine populists, or prohibitionists, or labor unionists, or weak-kneed republicans, named nine staunch, well-known republicans and nine equally staunch, well-known democrats. That is, he obeyed the law in spirit as well as in letter.

In 1897, with a house, senate, and governor all republican, the politicians thought surely they could now have their own way. Under the influences which began in 1889, the eight years which had elapsed by the first of January, 1897, had been years of wonderful progress in state institutions. Even before the passage of the non-partisan laws, the reform movement had borne splendid fruit, and the appointment of non-partisan boards was really the clinching of what had been already

driven in. Governor Mount, at the beginning of his first term, discovered to his great satisfaction that the benevolent institutions were in excellent order; improvements hardly credible had been made; scandals and legislative investigations seemed to be things of the past. He determined to use his influence to conserve all that was good. He began by refusing to remove any appointee of Governor Matthews. He continued by reappointing all these appointees as rapidly as their terms expired, with the exception of one board, having control of an institution that was a conspicuous failure as compared with the others, chiefly because the board had not lifted themselves above partisan politics.

The prisons of the state were still places for political pay. The legislature of 1897 made radical changes in the prison laws, involving the appointment by the governor of four directors for the new reformatory. The law contained no safeguard to prevent partisan control. Governor Mount, however, did what he believed to be the will of the people by choosing two democrats and two republicans, men of the highest character that could be found who would accept the positions. The politicians howled. They raged. They swore that the governor was ruining himself and the republican party. But the more they raged the more determined he was. The result amply justified his most sanguine expectations, and proved not only that he

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was right himself, but that the people of Indiana were with him in doing right. The downfall of the party did not occur; on the contrary, the republican majority was larger in 1900 than it was in 1896.

Governor Mount had his failings. He was somewhat hasty. He said "No" in one word when he ought to have said it in twenty. He forgot to cover the steel hand with the velvet glove, and so aroused enmity that a little cautious policy might have avoided. He sometimes decided matters without waiting for a full knowledge of the facts. But he was absolutely fearless, absolutely honest, and has done work for his state which only a man of his strength could have done. They have been hammering away at improvements in Indiana's institutions for ten years; Governor Mount clinched the nails; and there is reason to believe they will stick.

The hammering is going on in other states, and in other departments of philanthropic work. There are more fearless men who will do some clinching before they die; and educated public opinion is seeing to it that nails well driven and well clinched be given a fair chance to stick.

Friendly
Visiting at
Newport.

To the Editor of THE CHARITIES REVIEW: The communication in the December number of the REVIEW in criticism of the charity organization society of Newport perhaps calls for an explanation, if not a reply. Two points only are of importance in the

matter, first, the work itself, and, second, the method of work. The last annual report of our society, which was prepared by myself as president, is probably responsible for some misconception of the situation, particularly on the part of those who have read the report hurriedly. An attentive reading makes it plain that the report is not discussing the question of work by friendly visitors in general. Certain facts in the local condition are pointed out, showing an important change in a method of work. It is stated that this giving up of a particular method "is a natural result of the conditions of the work rather than from any determination so to do," and an explanation is offered as to how this change has come to pass. When, therefore, reference is made to a "decision," and to reasons stated in support of such decision, it is plain by the incorrect statement that the report has not been read with care. The facts as to this point, our method of work, are these: As stated in the report, in 1879 the society here had the names of fifty-two friendly visitors on its lists. In 1900 it had twenty persons actively employed as savings collectors. Ten of these collectors during the year have had cases under their care for which they have done the work of friendly visitors. They are not usually so designated, but most, if not all, have aptitude for, and experience in, such work, and are successful in its prosecution. Some applicants for relief are turned over to the exclusive charge of churches with which they are found to be connected, and occasionally one is put in charge of a society, as, for example, a branch of the King's daughters. Otherwise our paid agent is the link connecting us with

applicants for relief. These are the essential facts, and this is the condition as to this phase of work. It reveals the practical disuse of a certain class of workers under a certain name, and apparently a giving up of a portion of the work itself.

The explanation of the change as given in the report may be correct or otherwise. That is important or not, as the change may appear to affect the work of the society. Upon further reflection it strikes me that the explanation, while in the main correct, by the emphasis put upon the points mentioned and by omitting reference to other considerations, may perhaps be justly characterized as partial and incomplete. For example, I believe that at the outset we did not have a clear view of the limitations of successful work by this particular method, speaking of the subject generally; and that there was a natural tendency to a larger supply of helpers as visitors than could be most usefully employed, were they all active and efficient. The report also might well have made reference to the local limitations of this feature of the work owing to the peculiar characteristics of Newport as compared with many cities of its size. If there be force in these suggestions, then the real diminution of work on this particular line is not so great as it seems by mere comparison of numbers. Of course, the explanation proceeds on the theory that our present mode of work is proper and justifiable, but it is not an attempt to argue against friendly visiting elsewhere or anywhere. For we do not deny that other people in our places might have been more successful in maintaining friendly visitors as such. We have simply said that while endeavoring to

keep up our work as it should be we have not succeeded in keeping up the friendly visitors as a class of helpers, although we have never decided to dispense with them. But in this connection, the important question is, Does our charity organization society do its work well? Without a most thorough examination this question is as difficult to answer, with complete satisfaction as to its entire correctness, as it is important. I can simply record my own belief, based upon many years' connection with the society, that the work is as well done as it ever was. We are probably in as close affiliation to-day as ever with churches, charitable societies, and persons; we maintain our bureau of registration and act as a clearing house of information to point out impostors and the undeserving, and to aid all charitable givers in making their benefactions judicious, useful, and timely; we aim to assist such as through misfortune stand in need of temporary help back to self-support and independence; and strive to promote thrift by means of our saving society, which has had marked success. The Newport hospital and the society for the prevention of cruelty to children have representatives on our board, and, as far as we have opportunity, we endeavor to provide suitably for the sick and for the children of unworthy parents. The movements which resulted in the establishment of an industrial school and of the co-operative association for building and saving had their origin in our society. Much time, the past year, has been given to the consideration of the subject of a boys' club here. The board as now made up is composed of a large number of intelligent, earnest, and active members,

and not for years have the meetings been so well attended. While we believe that our work has been and is now conducted with a measurable and reasonable degree of success, of course we are not insensible to deficiencies, and are by no means satisfied. Our report says, "We have practically given up an early method of work, and with it unquestionably some of the work itself." In writing the latter clause, I assumed that in having so few persons performing the work of friendly visiting, some of the work would be left undone. As a matter of fact I knew of no case, then, nor do I know of any now, to which I can point as verifying that statement. And yet Mrs. Fields somewhat jauntily speaks of the "break-down of the work in Newport" and of excluding the Newport charity organization society from a federation of true associated charities, making the employment of friendly visitors as such the *sine qua non* of membership in such federations, as if such narrow interpretations had any place or logical connection with such comprehensive expressions as "associated charities," or "charity organization society." That would be putting the non-essential above the essential, as is so admirably suggested by the paragraph in the November REVIEW entitled "method versus spirit." If it were desirable, it scarcely seems proper to take space to answer in detail Mrs. Fields's interrogations. It is enough for the present to say that Newport is probably no worse than most cities of her size; that she has both devout women and patriotic men; and that even her much talked about summer residents include many of the best actively-benevolent Christian people of the land.

Darius Baker.

Negro
Skilled
Labor.

It is stated that a league has been organized in Washington to induce negroes to enter business and the skilled trades. The league has undertaken to make a canvass of the district to secure statistics regarding negroes in business, capital invested, churches, societies, etc., much, we should say, after the plan under which the study of Philadelphia negroes was conducted by Professor DuBois. When this data has been collected, a conference of colored business men will be called to devise ways and means to induce a larger number of colored persons to take up work requiring the exercise of some skill.

After School
Hours.

In the larger cities of Saxony in Germany, such as Dresden, Leipsic, Chemnitz, and Zwickau, institutions are maintained in which boys are kept after school hours to keep them from evil associations. In these places well-trained and enthusiastic teachers keep the boys (and in some cases the girls) employed with manual work and plays until the hour arrives when fathers and mothers come home from the factories. All these, and at least fifty other manual training schools for boys and girls, are private institutions, and do not receive subsidies from state or city authorities. "They do very excellent work training the children in order, diligence, cleanliness, and general moral conduct, children who would be lost in the slums for want of proper direction and guidance."

ORGANIZED CHARITY AT WORK.

C. O. S.
New York.

The New York charity organization society publishes a report which, as usual, gives evidence of condensation and even omission in order to bring within reasonable compass a review of its diversified activities. Tenement-house reform is placed foremost. Within the past year the tenement-house committee of the society, having failed in its attempt to secure suitable legislation from the local legislative body, spent five months in preparing an exhibition which should show in picturesque and graphic form the existing tenement-house conditions. The object of this exhibition and of the architects' competition which accompanied it was to impress upon the public mind the importance of the housing problem, and by arousing the community to a knowledge of existing conditions prepare the way for real progress. This was accomplished, and the educational effect of the exhibition was not limited to New York, but extended throughout the entire country. The most important direct outcome, so far as the state of New York is concerned, was the introduction of a bill prepared by the tenement-house committee authorizing the governor to appoint a commission to investigate the tenement-house problem in cities of the first class. This commission has

done its work of investigation thoroughly and has already published four valuable special reports. Its formal report to the legislature is to be submitted about February 1. Its adoption by the legislature will do away with the dark, narrow, and unventilated airshaft, which is the special abomination of the ordinary New York tenement-house, and secure many minor but essential reforms.

The annual report of the charity organization society contains a general survey of charitable legislation in the state, and of charitable administration in the city of New York, giving special attention to the reform instituted by the society two years ago in preventing the breaking up of families and the commitment of children to institutions, when this can be done by providing assistance privately at home. It is reported that in some instances parents are so anxious to keep their children that the task is easy, even though the amount of money required is considerable. The gratitude shown for the assistance through which it becomes possible to avoid the dreaded separation and the stigma of becoming a charge upon the public treasury, is ample reward for all those who have had a share in the undertaking. In other instances, a large amount of work besides the supply of relief has been necessary. For example, in one case the agent of the society induced an employer to lend money to get the family out of fur-

nished rooms, secured the discharge of children from an institution in Brooklyn, arranged for the admission of the woman into a maternity hospital, later brought about the arrest and imprisonment of the husband, persuading the wife to appear against him in court, and relatives to shelter the woman and children for a short period, secured a suspension of sentence and parole for the man, and by visiting the former employer secured his return to his former position, and obtained an excellent friendly visitor for the family. In a word, the breaking up of the family, repeatedly threatened, was averted, there having been every reason to believe that the man contemplated desertion after the children were committed. The greatest difficulty arose in the not infrequent cases in which the head of the family deserts the wife and children in order to secure the commitment of the latter.

One of the causes of the large number of applications from certain elements of the foreign population is a current misconception of the status of inmates of institutions. A Syrian priest, for example, has remarked that there is a strong prejudice among Syrians in favor of the "school," and all who are familiar with the magistrates' courts or with the department of charities know of the prevalent notion among Italians that their children are being "sent to college." It does not appear that there is any difference, in the minds of many people, between attendance in the public school and entire maintenance in an institution where an education would be obtained and perhaps a trade learned at the expense of the city. One family living in affluence in an expensive apartment was very much astonished when an

examiner from the department of charities suggested that the expenses of the education of the children should be met by the parents. In another instance one of the managers of an institution indignantly demanded whether the agent of the charity organization society wished to make paupers of the family. What the agent had proposed was that the mother should be helped privately to keep her children, instead of having the city pay for them in the institution. It is a curiously distorted view that would make a pauper of a family which is helped privately at home, but does not recognize as a pauper one whose children are a public charge.

Another still more striking instance is that of a West Indian negro who is quite capable of supporting his family, but who left them to their own resources, with the result that at least one of the children has been committed as a public charge. The father, whose whereabouts were unknown for a time, has been located as a student in a university in a neighboring state, the president of which writes concerning this student: "He is in our sophomore class. He is diligent and successful in his studies. We regard him as a very reliable and promising man. He appears to be under the control of good principles, and we are glad to cherish towards him a growing confidence."

The New York society in this work neither champions nor antagonizes the system of providing institutional care for dependent children. It has no bearing upon the relative advantages of different methods of caring for children who are dependent. The principle for which the society contends is that there should be discrimination in the

treatment of applications for the commitment of children and that private assistance and counsel should be given when these will make commitment unnecessary.

The total amount of relief obtained by the society in the year under review was \$17,479.91. Of this amount, \$8,997.66 was obtained from individuals through the central office, \$4,043.55 through the district offices, and \$4,438.70 came in response to newspaper appeals. About \$13,000 was earned by men and women employed in the woodyard, laundry, and workrooms. The relief disbursed by other societies and by individuals directly to beneficiaries upon the society's request is not included in the above statement, but only the amounts which were obtained and disbursed by it as intermediary.

Among the most urgent needs of New York city as enumerated in the report, are additional day nurseries in many localities; more diet kitchens; increased provision for aged men and women, either in the now overcrowded homes which already exist, or in the form of pensions; hospitals and sanatoria for consumptives, or provision to pay for their care in suitable climates or in existing sanatoria; friendly visitors, and active volunteer workers.

C. O. S.
Buffalo.

The Buffalo charity organization society, in its annual report, concentrates attention upon the constructive work of its district committees, pointing out that for some time this has been comparatively neglected as compared with the attention given to incidental and later features. The ideal committee is described as one in which a small number of people who come faithfully meet very many

others who come from time to time, to talk out what can be done for families in which they are interested. This ideal is difficult, and has by no means been attained, but a beginning has been made. Until 1898 these committees reviewed every application made to the public overseers for outdoor relief. These reached a total of nearly five thousand families in a year, and made thorough work impossible. It was decided in 1898, chiefly for financial reasons, to limit these duplicate investigations of families already investigated by the city to families living within the boundaries of accepted church districts, but to continue the investigations in these districts in order that in referring families for care an intelligent and thorough statement of the conditions might be given. This decreased the work so much that the society dismissed three of its seven agents, and also one clerk, and it also greatly increased the quality of work possible in the district committees.

A recent great extension of the church district plan makes it cover very nearly the whole city. This is one of the most interesting experiments now in progress in the field of organized charity. The plan itself was described in the REVIEW for March and May, 1898. The report of last year confessed a partial failure due to the unwillingness of the district committees to refer their families to the churches which on the invitation of the society have accepted the responsibility for particular districts. A rule was adopted in November, 1899, abolishing the discretion of the district committees, and requiring the reference of all families residing within the assigned districts.

This completed the conditions essential to the thorough trial of the plan, nearly the whole city having been satisfactorily assigned. We are not yet, however, assured that the plan is a success. The most that its immediate advocates claim is that it is succeeding. Perhaps, however, this is a commendable example of moderation in claims. That it has been in operation for five years, and that it has not been abandoned or undermined, but rather has been strengthened and extended, is much in its favor. Many "movements" which are heralded as revolutionary in character can claim less. The present report says that in the past year twenty new districts have been taken, making the total number over one hundred, and that in almost every denomination all the churches of importance now participate in this plan. On confident days it seems as if through this organized attack in another generation bestial poverty would be fairly driven from the field, but at present the difficulties of the church district plan are conspicuous. It is not popular with the agents of the society, not so much because it involves infinite detail and because a reference to a church often doubles their labor instead of lessening it, but because they see so often that it means delay and suffering to the poor. The district committees also hesitate to surrender a family in need to the weakness, dilatoriness, or apathy of some churches. A few notes by the agent of one of the district committees illustrate this. In reading them it should be borne in mind that urgent need is relieved at once by the society, with no delay whatever, before the family is referred. "Agent called twice and wrote once for reports. One month

after being referred was told by church visitor that she intended to call." "Agent has called and written for reports. Visitors, all young girls. I have no knowledge of families having been visited." "In each case visits were made one month after being referred." "Reports have been repeatedly promised by pastor. So far as agent knows, families have not been visited." "Pastor of this church says he understands the needs and work of the district better than anyone else. Charity organization society plan amounts to nothing. No time for reports." It is but fair to add that these could be fully matched by as many notes by the same agent, of wise, prompt care and good visitors.

The conclusion of the matter, in the words of the report, is: Unwise charity is as formidable under this plan as neglect or delay, but unwise charity has existed, is existing, and will exist, unless educated. The test of success of a charity organization society is its power to influence the charitable work of its community. What has been done is so much less than it might be that it often seems less than it is. A century ago it would have been Utopian to conceive of one hundred churches in a city, catholic, protestant, and Hebrew, banded together for a common purpose, and relieving each others' poor.

Relief Societies.

The reports of the relief societies and the associations for improving the condition of the poor indicate that the season of 1899-1900 was marked by no abnormal industrial or weather conditions unfavorably affecting the number of applications for assist-

ance. An exception should be made in the case of the New York united Hebrew charities. This society reports an unusual amount of illness, and a large disbursement of relief to the families of recently arrived immigrants. The latter was due to abnormal conditions in Roumania and elsewhere; the former in large part to bad housing conditions in the tenement districts of New York. This is, of course, a chronic cause of destitution, seriously affecting the work of all of the New York charities.

The report of the united Hebrew charities takes an aggressive tone regarding the necessity for immediate action in clearing out the ghetto, while the report of the association for improving the condition of the poor refers to the tenement-house itself as the real underlying evil rather than sickness, shiftlessness, intemperance, desertion, or any of the other causes naturally assigned upon a fair judgment of the immediate facts.

The report of the united Hebrew charities is a comprehensive and incisive discussion of the largest single relief problem resting upon any charitable agency in America. It should be studied by all who are interested in the immigration question, or in the housing question, or in the more general question of the care and relief of needy families.

The report of the association for improving the condition of the poor contains interesting statistical data and an account, necessarily condensed, of the various activities of the asso-

ciation: the relief department, fresh-air work, people's baths, Hartley house settlement, Cooper union labor bureau (recently discontinued), and the committee for boarding infants from the hospital on Randall's island (conducted jointly with the state charities aid association).

The reasons assigned for closing the labor bureau are given as follows: 1. Improvement of business conditions in the city, lessening the number of the unemployed. While there are still many men out of work, the number is much smaller than when this work was begun. 2. The announcement by some of the intelligence offices that employers can secure help from them without charge. 3. Free labor advertisements published in a daily paper of large circulation. 4. The establishment of a free labor bureau by the state; also by other philanthropic agencies. One of the objects which the committee has had in view from the first has been the fostering of enterprises that could take up the work and carry it on successfully. 5. The growing belief that the state is able to conduct a free employment office better than a philanthropic society can, because of its wider sphere of influence, its ability to ascertain the needs of different sections of the state, and also its power to secure legislation tending to decrease the evils of the average intelligence office. Important steps in this latter direction have already been taken, much-needed laws having been secured since the state bureau was opened. 6. Lack of adequate support to compete with agencies which have an expensive office force, employ canvassers, and insert advertisements calling attention to their work and their available applicants.

Boston
Associated
Charities.

What is an associated charities for? The Boston society of that name answers this inquiry in its annual report with characteristic simplicity and straightforwardness:

According to the directory of charitable and beneficent organizations published by us in 1899, there are in the city some 250 relief-giving societies, hospitals, and homes, besides many semi-charitable agencies. How is a person in need of help to know where he should apply; at which of these many doors he should knock?

More often than not the poor person who comes to others for help is lacking in judgment and foresight. When an extra trouble falls upon him he is bewildered, and turns to the nearest means of assistance, however unsuitable or inadequate, and far too often passes by in his ignorance the remedy of which he is in need. The best thing for him may be hospital care, or a convalescent home, or a temporary home for his children, while the mother is in a hospital, or a loan on moderate terms so as to start again in business, or to place his boy at an industrial school or on a farm under the care of a children's society, or to move his family to the country where work is to be had,—or several of these remedies together. Sometimes he knows what the right thing is, although not how to get it; but more generally he does not know what he requires, and asks for something quite different. Above all, however, he needs an intelligent and interested adviser and friend, who will put him in the way of getting the right assistance; and here comes the opportunity of the associated charities.

Scattered over the city are sixteen district offices. At each is to be found every day at certain hours, a devoted agent of the society, who gives sympathy, intelligence, painstaking care, infinite patience, and good-will; and, having knowledge of the manifold possibilities of the city, can obtain the immediate relief by food or fuel, which may be necessary, while plans are being laid for the longer future and against the recurrence of distress. Each new agent is trained by a hard course of work and study under experts for her office of "friend in deed." Behind this paid worker, who visits, investigates, reports, and relieves all pressing suffering at once, is a conference, a body of volunteer visitors, who meet once a week to discuss the cases brought to them, and to plan the right means of helping, whether for a few days or for long years. These volunteers, the actively interested friends of the people in the district, feel the need of counsel and deliberation that they may pursue wisely their work of guiding the lives of those who confess their inability to care for themselves. Not only do these friends meet in full conference weekly, but daily also in small groups, so constant are the calls for advice from every side.

To bind together the different groups of helpers, there is the central office, or bureau of exchanges, where the histories of distressed families are kept privately, where information passes continually and confidentially from the different relief societies and individuals to us and to each other. At this office, meetings of the directors are held constantly, and the general plans and principles of the society are worked out. Here the agents meet in council, the secre-

tary conducts classes in the study of charity, and here the work of the whole is unified and directed.

The above will answer equally well as a description of the particular work of a charity organization society or a bureau of charities. It is obvious that it would not fit a relief society, or an association for improving the condition of the poor. Either of the latter might conceivably become a charity organization society, as here described, but, so far as we know, none of them have. For this reason we have reproduced these paragraphs, as likely to prove helpful to people in other communities who have discovered that they need "organized charity," but are not clear as to the particular type needed.

The associated charities of Boston encourages a perusal of brief extracts published from the reports of its sixteen district conferences. One of these contains a detailed study of 194 cases dealt with in the past year. The conclusion of the conference is that, barring the death of the husband and unusually formidable cases of illness or accident, families should be able to get on without charitable relief, and that they may be helped by friendly interest to stand alone.

An encouraging report comes from the North End, a district in which vice was formerly rampant, and life and property unsafe. It is asserted that there are here signs of moral improvement; that each year there is a more settled family life and permanent attachment to the neighborhood, and that to-day no portion of Boston is more

generally law-abiding, industrious, and church-going. Credit for these satisfactory results is given to the church, the public schools, the private industrial and trade schools, kindergartens, day nurseries, stamp-saving stations, the branch of the public library, the North End park, and the comparative absence of unwise philanthropy. The situation, however, is not yet ideal. There are still saloons, policy-shops, and public outdoor relief; and there are too many unskilled laborers, unable adequately to support their families.

The conference of district seven (north station), refusing to consider the efficacy of visiting an open question, outlines two plans for future development—one of which is already in force in New York city, and the other in Buffalo: First, a plan for lessening the work,—by abolishing outdoor relief, paid from taxes levied on the people, a system which creates pauperism almost as fast as it is abolished by the personal influence of visitors. Dr. Chalmers could not state his faith too strongly on this head; and in America, of late years, Brooklyn, New York, Philadelphia, are delivered from this yoke. Chicago is at this moment struggling to free herself; and Buffalo hopes almost against hope (the difficulties there are so great) sooner or later to be rid of outdoor relief. Why must Boston lag so far behind? Second, a plan for better organization,—a union with the churches. The preacher spends himself in endeavoring to animate his people through his sermons to a larger religious life, in the hope of seeing some fruit from his labors above and beyond gifts of money. Our churches have old-established relief societies (sewing so-

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cieties chiefly) seldom registering the recipients of their bounty. If the poor members of a church are more than can be visited by the well-to-do members, let the charity committee of the church ask the associated charities for visitors. If, on the other hand, there are not many poor in the church, as occasionally happens, let such a church adopt and find visitors for a poor district, no matter how small, in need of help. This co-operation from the churches is not much to ask, but the change in behalf of the poor would gradually appear to be very great indeed.

**The Baltimore
Societies.**

The Baltimore charity organization society, at the beginning of its report, emphasizes the satisfactory co-operation prevailing between that society and the Baltimore association for improving the condition of the poor. There is no need of formal meetings of the joint committee, as there is complete differentiation and yet a thorough co-operation. This is no affair on paper merely, but is most effective through the frequent intercourse of the district agents.

The special topic of the annual meeting was "the church and charity." The address delivered at this meeting by Mr. Thomas M. Mulry, president of the St. Vincent de Paul society of New York, has been printed in full in *Charities*. Another address upon the same occasion by Rev. Frederick N. Hamilton of Boston defines the relation of the church and charity as follows:

"What, then, shall be the relation of the church and charity? At first sight we might say that it should administer the world's charities. Were there one church to which everybody belonged, that would be sound, but there are many denomi-

nations, and not a few of the well-to-do, as of the poor, belong to none. Church charities clearly must be either denominational or undenominational. Strictly denominational charities, benefiting only those of the household of faith, do not commend themselves either to sense or to sentiment. They involve an unfair division of the field of labor without covering it. They are liable to carry a taint of bigotry which the present age is not disposed to tolerate.

"Church charities are generally wasteful because of overlapping and lack of co-operation. Their results are secured at too great an expense of money and of labor. It is almost inevitable that churches should use their charities as bait. We speak of 'reaching' people by our day nurseries and our coal distributions and our sewing classes. The labor involved in listening to some of our sermons is really considerable, but it is, after all, less than that required for coming by a ton of coal in the usual fashion. The woman who, as her little daughter said in answer to an inquiry, was Presbyterian in the morning and Methodist in the afternoon, was in a bad way, but hardly as bad as that of the church which gets into the habit of glorifying itself by proudly recounting its charities.

"The Christian pulpit ought to stand, in charity as in everything else, for the highest conceptions of truth, coupled with the loftiest standards of action. Every hearer should be made to feel that Christianity means action. His faith is to be translated into works as heat is transformed into motion. He is to get power in the church, and to use that power through the great agencies which combine those in all churches and outside any church who have a common zeal and a common purpose."

INSTITUTIONAL CARE OF DESTITUTE ADULTS.¹

(AMERICAN PHILANTHROPY OF THE NINETEENTH CENTURY.)

BY ROBERT W. HEBBERD,

Secretary of the New York State Board of Charities.

IV—THE ALMSHOUSE SYSTEM.

1801
to
1860.

The opening days of the century saw but few of the states equipped with a general almshouse system.

As early as 1747 an act was passed for the relief of the poor in the county of Suffolk, in New York state, which provided that the "freeholders and inhabitants of each town, manor, and precinct, at their annual meetings for electing officers, shall elect as many persons to be overseers of the poor as a majority of the freeholders and inhabitants of said town, manor, or precinct then present, shall judge necessary.

"The overseers, with the consent of two or more justices of the peace dwelling in or near said town, manor, or precinct, are required to find and provide in the town, manor, or precinct, in the county aforesaid for the dwelling of the poor and setting them to work, some fit and convenient place, at the charge of the respective town, manor, or precinct where the same may be, which charge shall be ascertained, assessed, levied, collected, and paid as above."²

In 1768 the legislature of Maryland had provided for the establishment of an almshouse and workhouse in each county, and a tax was laid for this purpose. The care and management of these institutions were the subject of special directions. Work was provided for the able-bodied poor, and the disorderly were committed to the institution.

Early in the century each county in Delaware had a poorhouse with a farm, not exceeding one hundred acres. No poor person was provided with outdoor relief, unless he was not in a condition to be sent to the almshouse.

The manner of gaining admission to the poorhouse was said to be "by application to two trustees of the poor; one of whom shall reside in the hundred of which such pauper is a resident, who shall, if they see fit, give an order for the admission of such applicant. This is not to embrace the case of a pauper having no known residence, who may be received on the order of any two trustees; and any committee of the board of trustees, or the overseers of the poor, may remove such pauper from the house at their discretion. The

¹ Synopsis of paper:

- i. Early methods of caring for destitute adults.
- ii. Care of the poor by contract.
- iii. Three great almshouses:
Boston, 1662. Philadelphia, 1731.
New York, 1736.

- iv. The almshouse system.
- v. Homes for the aged.
- vi. Homes for the blind and the deaf.
- vii. Soldiers and sailors' homes.
- viii. Temporary homes and shelters.

² Colonial laws of New York, compiled by the statutory revision commission, volume 3, 1739-55.

great body of the poor of this state are thus boarded in the house, but, under certain restrictions, a portion may be, and are, boarded out, but the pauper must be willing to live in the house, and must have lived in the house as a pauper, three months prior to the time of his being boarded out; and such order must be given at a meeting of the board of trustees. The number boarded out are not to exceed one third of the number then in the house; and the expense incurred must amount at no time to more than two-thirds the expense of boarding them in the house, or a sum in proportion to the cost of all the paupers of the county maintained in the house. . . . All lunatics and insane persons, confined in the several gaols, on an order from the levy court, are directed to be given up by the sheriffs of the several counties; and the overseer of the poor is required to receive such persons into the poorhouse and closely confine them. . . . The whole population of Delaware, by the census of 1820, was 70,943, making about one out of 227 souls to be a pauper."

In Virginia, in 1824, the county officers were empowered to establish poorhouses, commonly known as workhouses, it appears, and seem to have done so, to a limited extent at least. In other counties, paupers were boarded out in families, while in some localities outdoor relief was granted in place of care in the almshouse. The plans for employing the poor in the workhouses varied; some were put at work on the farm and garden, while the women were given indoor work, such as carding, spinning, weaving, and sewing. In general, however, there was no regularly organized system of employment, the administration of each

workhouse being governed by peculiar circumstances. These workhouses, it is said, were "invariably found to diminish greatly the number of paupers. Hundreds are found soliciting, or willing to receive pecuniary aid; very few of whom will take refuge in a poorhouse, but in the last extremity."

In Richmond, with a population of about 16,000 at this period, there was a poorhouse, having on an average about seventy inmates, mostly aged and infirm persons, unable to work. This was known as the "city alms and workhouse," but it appears that, in line with the custom at some of the more modern workhouses, little work was ever done there.

The laws of North Carolina, early in the century, provided for the election of seven wardens of the poor, and the purchase of land and erection of poorhouses in each county.

Pennsylvania had, at the same time, a system of county almshouses, some of these institutions containing a considerable population. A letter from the secretary of that state to the secretary of the state of New York in 1824, gives the following information:

"The system of each township providing for its own poor, is still preserved in some of our counties; but it was found in the large, populous counties to be so troublesome to the overseers and so oppressive to the taxable inhabitants, while it sometimes failed in affording timely relief to those whose claims justly entitled them to assistance, on the general principles of humanity, or in virtue of their settlement right, that, on a representation of the grievances, the legislature has granted by special acts, to such counties as have

made application, the privilege of erecting houses for the reception and accommodation of the poor, subject to the regulations specified in the several acts.

"A number of counties, availing themselves of this privilege, have purchased convenient tracts of land, erected buildings proportioned to the number of paupers that might, at any reasonable calculation, be expected at one time, and the expense is met by a tax levied on the county. This is represented by all the directors of the poor, who appear to have been attentive observers of the different laws, and who have made communications on the subject, to be an important improvement on the old plan, both as regards the expense, to those who have it to pay, and the convenience and comfort of the paupers themselves." At this time, in four counties in the heart of the state, whose population aggregated 136,755, there were 404 paupers, one to every 339 of the population. The average annual cost of the support of each pauper was \$33.64, exclusive of the proceeds of the farm. The male inmates of the almshouses were employed on the farms, or at their respective trades, if any, while the women were occupied in doing the work of the house, attending the sick, and in spinning, knitting, and sewing.

The New York legislature by an act passed March 3, 1820, authorized a house of industry to be built in Rensselaer county, with the approval of the board of supervisors. The boards of supervisors of the other counties were each authorized to build such a house, provided two-thirds of the supervisors consented thereto.

By the act of March 30, 1820, the

common council of Hudson was authorized to appoint three persons to be commissioners of the almshouse in that city.

The supervisors of Madison county, by act of February 9, 1821, were authorized to rent a tenement with not exceeding fifty acres of land for a period of one or more years, in order to provide for the poor of the county.

The overseers of the poor of the town of Poughkeepsie were authorized by act of the legislature passed in 1821, to purchase one hundred acres of land and build a house of industry, if the town passed a vote for that purpose.

By the act of April 5, 1822, the overseers of the poor of Amsterdam in Montgomery county, were empowered to erect a house of industry. The year following a house of industry was authorized to be erected in Red Hook, Dutchess county, and like powers were given to all of the other towns in the state.

In New Jersey, in 1824, poor-houses were authorized to be built in any city or town, if the inhabitants desired it, and paupers refusing to be there supported were to be struck off the list of those receiving relief.

In New Hampshire, as early as 1824, each town was empowered to erect a house of correction or work-house, taking the place of an almshouse, and the court of general sessions was authorized to provide one for the county.

Several years before, according to a letter from the secretary of state of New Hampshire, "several towns . . . purchased farms, with suitable buildings, farming utensils, and stock, and placed their poor on the farms, under the superintendence of

suitable persons, authorized to compel them to labor, and employed such of them as were able to labor abroad, in farming, and the others in manufacturing and other kinds of labor, suited to their strength and capacity." "In those towns where a fair experiment of this system has been made," the letter continues, "the result is believed to have been entirely satisfactory. It was adopted in the town of Londonderry in the spring of 1819," with "an average saving in the expenses of the three years succeeding that period, compared with the preceding three years, of more than \$1,000 per annum, or more than half the whole expense." "In the town of Exeter, this system was adopted in the year 1817. Before that time the average annual expense of the poor was about \$1,200, for many years, and for four years following that period the average expense was but about \$760."

In Vermont, the various towns were authorized to establish houses of correction, or two or more towns could unite in doing so, in which the poor and the vagrant were confined, and justices were empowered to commit thereto.

In Massachusetts, at this time, there was a poorhouse in most towns, in which those able to labor were required to do so, and this system of caring for the poor was being generally adopted, although some localities provided for the dependent by paying their board in families. One advantage of the poorhouse plan was said to be "that some are prevented from applying for assistance, as they would dislike being placed in a poorhouse, and another is, that much labor is produced which would be otherwise lost." The cost of support averaged about \$1 per week per capita.

At Newport, R. I., an almshouse known as the Newport asylum, was erected on Coaster's harbor island, and opened in 1820. This cost \$8,000, and made provision for about fifty paupers, being one, its is said, for every one hundred and fifty of the population of the state. From a very enthusiastic report of the work of this institution, written by one of its nine commissioners to the secretary of state of New York, in 1824, the following is a quotation: "The performance of religious services on the Sabbath has been very effectual. From the utmost disorder and inattention, our paupers have become silent and attentive during service, in an uncommon degree. On the score of temperance, peculiar vigilance has been observed, and the isolated situation of the asylum has rendered it comparatively easy to prevent drunkenness. There are several instances among the paupers of those who have been almost continually drunk for many years (some of them not less than forty), who have scarcely tasted liquor since they have been in the asylum, and that without any apparent inconvenience. The use of ardent spirits is entirely prohibited, except for medicinal purposes. One observation on the score of industry: Several of the most idle and abandoned women, who were totally incapable of earning an honest livelihood (being totally unacquainted with any kind of household work), have been taught to card, spin, and weave, and to perform such kinds of ordinary labor as is required in farmers' families; and under the care of the commissioners, have been allowed to procure employment in the country, and are now living respectably upon the fruits of their industry."

When one reads this laudatory account of the fruits of the Newport almshouse, he can not fail to be impressed with the likeness it bears to the current reports of some of our private charities, and with the belief that the almshouses of the present day have lost much of their ancient charm.

In Connecticut one or more towns could establish almshouses, then known, in the early part of the century, as "asylums for the poor." The principal towns had adopted the plan of uniting their almshouses and workhouses, which were usually located on a small farm. At this early day provision had already been made for supporting foreigners at the expense of the state.

At a town meeting held in New Haven, in 1823, a committee appointed to examine into the question of the support of the poor, reported in favor of the establishment of a house of industry, recommending the purchase of a farm of not less than seventy-five nor more than one hundred and fifty acres of land, and the erection of a stone building thereon for the reception of paupers. The following is quoted from the committee's report: "The committee have taken measures to obtain information from various towns in Massachusetts and elsewhere, in which experiments have been made, as to the practicability of enabling the poor to support themselves, by the products of their own industry; they have consulted the printed reports of a number of places, where the plans adopted have been published to the world; and they have come to this conclusion—that the

poor of the town of New Haven may be made to support themselves by agriculture and a few simple manufactures, under an intelligent and efficient superintendent." This vision of a self-supporting charitable institution is, however, one that is yet to be realized.

The committee further says in its report: "In order to promote the industry and reformation of our paupers, it is essential that visitors whose object is to furnish the means of supplying their depraved appetites should be totally excluded. It is essential, likewise, that paupers themselves should be restrained from wandering after ardent spirits, or other forbidden indulgences. No plan has been found so effectual in accomplishing these objects as the erection of a thick stone wall, laid in mortar, around the buildings, made ten or twelve feet high, and crowned with spikes. At Salem, in Massachusetts, they have a wall of this kind and a gate-keeper; and no person of a suspicious appearance is admitted without a written passport."

In Illinois, the poor were farmed out to the lowest bidder, and purchasers were allowed to keep them at moderate labor. The governor of the state at this time wrote, "The fact is that Illinois has no poor, at least so few that I have not been able to learn anything about them."¹

These, then, were the conditions that prevailed in the early part of the century, when almshouse administration was, even in the larger cities, to a considerable extent purely a matter of experiment.

The movement having once be-

¹ Report of the secretary of state, New York, 1824.

gun, the establishment of almshouses continued rapidly in most of the states, until, by the year 1830, twenty-nine of these institutions had been established in New York state alone, and by 1840 this number had increased to forty-eight. In these early days, mainly, doubtless, through a lack of knowledge generally as to the best methods of management, and the inexperience of the keepers, almshouse conditions were in a deplorable state, the aged and infirm, the sane and insane, idiots and feeble-minded, adults and children, all being maintained in the same establishment, and in many cases under the same roof.

In 1841, Miss Dorothea Lynde Dix commenced in Massachusetts her work of inspiration which accomplished so much in that state and in Rhode Island, New York, New Jersey, and other states, towards the removal of the insane from degrading surroundings in almshouses and jails and secured for them scientific care and treatment in separate institutions. In this work she was aided by Dr. Samuel G. Howe, "the Cadmus of the blind, giving the dumb lip language, the idiot clay a mind," and afterwards, through him, by the Hon. Charles Sumner.¹

1851
to
1900.

In 1856 the legislature of New York appointed a select committee "to visit all charitable institutions supported or assisted by the state and all city

and county poor and workhouses and jails." This committee presented a most interesting report to the legislature of 1857, from which the following is quoted:

Exclusive of the almshouses and poorhouses in New York and Kings counties there are forty-five poorhouses in the state; the average number of inmates for the year, according to the testimony taken by the committee, being 6,420. The actual number of inmates at the time when the committee was engaged in its examinations, was 4,936, of which 2,670 were foreign born, and 1,307 were children. During the past year, the number of deaths in these forty-five poorhouses was 770. Such a great mortality as this number indicates, should arrest the public attention.

The number of lunatics found confined in the poorhouses (excepting those in New York and Kings counties) was 837 (329 males and 508 females), of which number 301 were received during the last year. Of the whole number 130 were reported as being in cells and chains. During the year, fifty-nine improved and twenty-six recovered. All were paupers except twenty-seven. Why these twenty-seven should be confined in a poorhouse can only be accounted for by the inadequate provision now made by the state for accommodating the poor insane. This circumstance impressed the committee with the urgent necessity of providing additional establishments similar to the state asylum at Utica. . . . There were found in these poorhouses 273 idiots, twenty-five deaf mutes and seventy-one blind persons. Of those num-

¹ Life of Dorothea Lynde Dix. Tiffany.

bered as idiots, many are simply demented, and are suitable subjects for lunatic asylums. The average weekly support of the inmates is eighty-three cents.

The poorhouses throughout the state may be generally described as badly constructed, ill-arranged, ill-warmed, and ill-ventilated. The rooms are crowded with inmates, and the air, particularly in the sleeping apartments, is very noxious, and to casual visitors almost insufferable. In some cases, as many as forty-five inmates occupy a single dormitory, with low ceilings, and sleeping-boxes arranged in three tiers, one above another. Good health is incompatible with such arrangements. They make it an impossibility.

The want of suitable hospital accommodations is severely felt in most of the poorhouses. The sick, considering their physical condition, are even worse cared for than the healthy. The arrangements for medical attendance are quite inadequate to secure that which is suitable; the physician is poorly paid, and consequently gives only such general attention as his remuneration seems to require. In some cases the inmates sicken and die without any medical attendance whatever. In one county almshouse, averaging 137 inmates, there were thirty-six deaths during the past year, and yet none of them from epidemic or contagious disease. Such a proportion of mortality indicates most inexcusable negligence.

A proper classification of the inmates is almost wholly neglected. It is either impossible, or when possible, it is disregarded. . . .

The treatment of lunatics and idiots in these houses is frequently abusive. The cells and sheds where

they are confined are wretched abodes, often wholly unprovided with bedding. In most cases, female lunatics had none but male attendants. Instances were testified to of the whipping of male and female idiots and lunatics and of confining the latter in loathsome cells, and binding them with chains. In one county, where eleven lunatics were confined, six were in chains. . . .

Before passing from the subject of poorhouses, the committee may be allowed to say that it is to be much regretted that our citizens generally manifest so little interest in the condition even of those in their immediate neighborhood. Individuals who take great interest in human suffering whenever it is brought to their notice, never visit them and are entirely uninformed, that in a county house almost at their own doors may be found the lunatic suffering for years in a dark and suffocating cell in summer, and almost freezing in the winter; where a score of children are poorly fed, poorly clothed, and quite untaught; where the poor idiot is half starved and beaten with rods because he is too dull to do his master's bidding; where the aged mother is lying in perhaps her last sickness, unattended by a physician, and with no one to minister to her wants; where the lunatic, and that lunatic, too, a woman, is made to feel the lash in the hands of a brutal underkeeper; yet these are all to be found; they all exist in our state. And the committee are quite convinced that to this apparent indifference on the part of the citizens may be attributed in a great degree the miserable state to which these houses have fallen; and they would urge upon the benevolent in all parts of the state to look into their con-

dition, and thus assist to make them comfortable abodes for the indigent and the unfortunate.

A terrible arraignment, and yet one that, doubtless, accomplished much good.

Strangely enough, the committee, after making this very intelligent report, recommended that the amount given in outdoor relief in the various counties be increased, citing in support of this recommendation, "the success of the system of outdoor relief practised in the city of New York."

The legislature of New York, in 1864, finally moved to action by the report of 1857, authorized the secretary of the medical society of the state, Dr. Sylvester D. Willard, to investigate the condition of the insane poor in the various poorhouses, almshouses, insane asylums, and other institutions where the insane poor were kept, and he later submitted a report which fully corroborated the severe findings of the legislative committee.¹

Thus attention was at last being given to the unfortunate situation of the almshouse poor, and a feeling of sympathy was developing slowly but surely, that ultimately resulted in the greatly improved conditions of the present day.

With the establishment of state boards of charities, or like commissions (having, to a greater or less degree, supervisory relations over almshouses), commencing with

Massachusetts in 1863 and followed by Ohio and New York in 1867, North Carolina, Illinois, Pennsylvania, and Rhode Island in 1869, and later by other states, until there are now twenty-two such boards, the conditions at the almshouse institutions began to improve much more rapidly. The bibliography of almshouse development has, too, like the institutions themselves, had a steady and continuous growth. To the reports of these boards the student must go for a detailed account of almshouse administration from year to year.

In New York state, the state charities aid association, a voluntary organization of philanthropic men and women, formed in 1872, has rendered most effective service in securing needed reforms in these as well as in other institutions.

The first annual report of the Massachusetts board of state charities, published in 1865, contains an interesting and detailed account of the state almshouses at Tewksbury, Monson, and Bridgewater, written by the secretary of the board, Mr. Frank B. Sanborn. These almshouses were intended to provide for the state paupers of Massachusetts, and Mr. Sanborn, in the report mentioned, summed up the general results of the system as follows:

1. It has not met the expectations of its founders. Of this I have before spoken, and will only touch upon it here. It has not absolutely

¹ Report on the condition of the insane poor in the county poorhouses of New York, made to the legislature of 1865 by Sylvester D. Willard.

reduced the pauper expenses of the state below what they were in 1850-4; so far, at least, as we can judge from the annual returns; but, 2. it has checked, regulated, and made manageable the great influx of foreign pauperism which has been pouring into the commonwealth for the last quarter of a century. It has furnished the means not only of supporting but of sifting and reducing what would otherwise have been a most formidable collection of helpless creatures, drawn hither by the reputation of Massachusetts charity, or thrown among us by chance.

The second report of the state board of charities of New York, issued in 1868, contains the following general statement with reference to conditions at that time:

But few of the poorhouses of the state, owing to their arrangement, admit of a proper classification of their inmates. The authorities, in most of them, aim to keep the sexes separated at night, but this is only partially accomplished. During the day there is an indiscriminate and unrestricted association of all classes, including the aged and respectable, children, insane, idiotic, and blind; together with the middle-aged, able-bodied, slothful, debased, and profane of both sexes. In most cases they partake of a common fare at a common table and not infrequently share with one another a common dormitory. The effects of such an association can be better conceived than described.

Nearly all the poorhouses throughout the state are old, and most of them out of repair. With but few exceptions they are badly constructed, ill-arranged, and are with-

out proper ventilation or suitable appliances for bathing. In a large proportion of them the rooms are small and the ceilings low. At the time of inspection in many of them the air was hot, foul, and oppressive, and to the casual visitor hardly endurable. The rooms are often crowded, especially in winter, and much of the sickness and wretchedness of their inmates doubtless results therefrom.

The poorhouses of the state, to a considerable extent, have become the abodes of the vagrant and idle, and if by chance respectable citizens, in consequence of poverty, infirmity, disease, or misfortune of any kind, are compelled to accept a home in them, they necessarily become their associates. Vice and poverty assemble under the same roof, and this association in a great measure defeats the objects for which the institutions were established. The citizens generally manifest but little interest in their condition, and really know but little of their true character. They are usually visited annually by the board of supervisors, but are seldom inspected, except upon the occasion of such visits.

Active forces were at work, however, destined materially to change these deplorable conditions.

Ohio in 1866 started the movement to provide public care outside of the almshouse for dependent children. In 1883 the retention of children over three years of age in almshouses was prohibited unless they were separated from adult paupers, and in 1898 the age was reduced to one year.

Michigan in 1874 provided for dependent children in state public

schools, from which they were to be placed out in families as soon as possible.

New York in 1875, through the efforts of the state board of charities, aided by the state charities aid association, passed a law forbidding the retention of children between the ages of three and sixteen years in almshouses, and this minimum was later reduced to two years.

Wisconsin in 1878, Pennsylvania and Connecticut in 1883, Maryland in 1890, Rhode Island in 1892, New Hampshire in 1895, Indiana in 1897, and New Jersey in 1899 passed somewhat similar laws.¹

In 1878 the legislature of New York established the state custodial asylum for feeble-minded women at Newark, the facilities of which have been gradually increased until it now affords a shelter for over four hundred of this unfortunate class, previously subject to all the demoralizing influences of almshouse association.

In 1881 the house of refuge for women, at Hudson, was established, also through the efforts of the state board of charities, to provide for the morally weak and depraved, who, in frequent instances, formed a considerable part of the almshouse population.

In 1890, largely through the influence of the state charities aid association, a bill was passed providing for exclusive state care of the insane, and in 1892 provision was

made, through the efforts of the state board and the association, for the care of epileptics in the Craig colony at Sonyea.

To some degree other states followed this example, and the almshouses of the present day are, in many states, mainly homes for the dependent aged, infirm, and sick, a large number of the institutions being equipped with hospital facilities of a superior order. The reports of the state boards continue to show, however, that there is still much room for improvement.

"The management of almshouses in New England," is described by Mr. Frank B. Sanborn, then inspector of charities in the state of Massachusetts, in a paper read at the national conference of charities and correction in 1884. There were then in Massachusetts a single state almshouse, with a population of nearly a thousand, and about two hundred and twenty-five city and town almshouses, containing from a single inmate to five hundred. What is stated to be a fair example of the better class of the town almshouses is given as follows:

The almshouse at B— has a large farm, estimated at over four hundred acres. The land is good and valuable, a part of it occupied for a long time as a poor farm. The house was burnt some ten years ago, after which the present house was built. It is large and looks like a hotel, with fifty rooms, and might

¹ "The care of destitute, neglected, and dependent children," Homer Folks, in this historical series.

accommodate three times as many inmates as it has to-day, August 10—fourteen paupers (the average number being seldom over twenty), all American, and remarkable for great age and good health. The rooms are well ventilated and lighted, neat and cleanly, the men's and women's departments entirely separated, while each inmate is furnished with a room. Several of the women take good care of their rooms. . . . The whole establishment is superior to many private houses. . . .

The superintendent, E. G., has had charge for five years. He is paid \$450. Mrs. G. is a superior woman and admirably adapted to the place. She knows everything about the house and also about every inmate. The food is superior in quality and amount.

The ten county almshouses of New Hampshire, according to Mr. Sanborn, had farms ranging in size from 230 to 650 acres, and aggregating 4,000 acres of land. They contained an average population of about one thousand and thirty, increasing in the winter to 1,250. The average weekly cost per capita was about \$1.50. A large percentage of the inmates were insane or idiotic, and the management was said to be kindly and frugal. The whole number of almshouses in New England at this time was estimated to be about six hundred.

The almshouses of North Carolina, known as "homes for the aged and infirm," are, according to a recent report of the board of public charities in that state, of a varied character; some are classed as "ex-

cellent;" others, as "good," and still others as "bad." At present there is, the report says, no system in the state; one county may possess a modern, well-equipped building, easily accessible, while another may possess a home which is merely a collection of log huts, or even hovels, sometimes without a farm, or situated upon the most barren spot to be purchased because of its cheapness. In some cases the homes are without even a garden, and are surrounded by bushes and briars, with windows without glass, leaking roofs, gaping walls, and only dirt and idleness within.

Another county refuses to provide a home and turns the care of the poor over to him who charges the least; "possibly," the report says, "to the man whose conscience will permit him to afford less comfort at less cost than any other person can bring himself to, that a profit may still be afforded out of the scale of misery and want that human nature can endure and exist. To such refinement has the science of enforced privation reached that the poor were let at \$2.12½ monthly last season in at least one county of our proud and chivalrous state, which yearly sends missionaries across the ocean to find the heathen."

After an unusually thorough examination of the almshouses of New York, the report of the state board of charities to the legislature of 1899 says: "The almshouse of to-day is no longer the 'bedlam' of the past. It has become a home, wherein the aged, the infirm, and the unfortunate

may pass their closing days in peace, comfort, and decency. Some of the almshouses are models in this regard, and all would be were the officials permitted the use of ample funds to make the repairs and changes which are necessary, and could they be rid of the able-bodied vagrants who now find shelter in public homes never intended for those able to support themselves. A careful examination of the almshouses of the state shows that the administration is worthy of high commendation. Whatever criticisms may be made, they touch upon needs of equipment and repairs, and are seldom upon administration or discipline."

Town almshouses continue to be the rule in New England, although New Hampshire has both county and town almshouses. New York has at present but two town almshouses, both situated on Long Island.

In Arizona, California, Colorado, and Nevada, almshouses are termed "hospitals;" in Ohio, "infirmaries;" in Indiana, "asylums," and in North Carolina, "homes for the aged and infirm."

The census of 1880 reported the total number of paupers in almshouses to be 66,203, out of a total population of 50,155,783, the ratio being 1 to 758 of the population, or 1,320 to the million. In 1890, the number of such paupers had in-

creased to 73,045 out of a total population of 62,622,250, the ratio being 1 to 857, or 1,166 to the million, a marked decrease, as will readily be seen.¹

Those seeking practical suggestions with relation to plans, construction, and administration of almshouses, will find much that is useful in a series of papers by Hon. William Pryor Letchworth, formerly president of the state board of charities of New York, on "plans for poorhouses," "poorhouse construction," and "poorhouse administration."² Other useful suggestions are to be found in an address by Hon. H. H. Giles, of the state board of charities of Wisconsin, on "the location, construction, and management of poorhouses," published in the proceedings of the eleventh national conference of charities and correction; and in a pamphlet on "poorhouses, their location, construction, and management," recently published by the state board of corrections and charities of Minnesota.

V—HOMES FOR THE AGED

The earliest establishment of a home for the aged, within the knowledge of the writer, is that of the association for the relief of respectable, aged indigent females in the city of New York. This was founded in 1814 and incorporated the year following. The object of this asso-

¹ U. S. census bulletin No. 90, "paupers in almshouses," July 8, 1891.

² 12th annual report of the state board of charities, New York.

³ 24th annual report of the state board of charities, New York.

⁴ Proceedings convention county superintendents of the poor, 1885, New York.

ciation is to care for and maintain respectable, aged indigent women. The value of its property is over \$800,000, and it makes provision for nearly a hundred women of the class indicated in its title. Gentlewomen, sixty years of age or over, resident in New York for ten years, in reduced circumstances and satisfactorily recommended as to respectability, are received upon payment of \$200. If foreign born, they must have been residents of the United States for twenty years. A similar home, incorporated in 1851, is maintained in Brooklyn.

Many similar homes exist throughout the United States, some providing for men, some for women, and some for both sexes, most of them receiving the better class of the aged poor, and charging a fee ranging from \$200 to \$400. They are, as a general rule, under responsible management and well conducted.

The homes for the aged of the little sisters of the poor, which are carried on by a sisterhood of the Roman catholic church, are designed to provide a gratuitous home for the aged and infirm of both sexes, over sixty years of age and well recommended. The two in the city of New York provide for over 600 annually.

The census reports for 1890 do not classify the statistics of benevolent institutions in such a way as to show clearly all the homes for the aged in the United States. So far, however, as these institutions are indi-

cated by their names, there were at the time the census was taken, 218 homes for the aged throughout the United States, fifty-four being in New York; thirty-one in Pennsylvania; thirty in Massachusetts; sixteen in Ohio; nine each in Indiana and New Jersey; eight in Illinois; seven each in Maryland and California; six in South Carolina; five in Missouri; four each in Michigan, Minnesota, New Hampshire, Virginia, and Rhode Island; three in Wisconsin; two each in Georgia and Iowa; and one each in Alabama, Arkansas, Kansas, Kentucky, Tennessee, Texas, Vermont, Washington, and West Virginia. There has, doubtless, been a considerable growth in the number of these institutions since the census of 1890 was taken, and it may be assumed that there are now about three hundred homes for the aged in the United States.

VI—HOMES FOR THE BLIND AND THE DEAF.

Homes for the blind and the deaf, as distinguished from schools for these classes, are too rarely found in the United States. The lack of them seems to be compensated for in part by a system of pensions provided for the indigent blind in some localities. Thus the city of New York makes an annual appropriation of about \$50,000 for this purpose, which is distributed by the commissioner of charities.

In Boston there is a private fund of \$80,000, called the Harris fund, one-third of the income of which is

applied to the care, maintenance, and relief of indigent blind persons, in pensions of from \$40 to \$100 a year, preference being given to aged persons living in Charlestown.

Some of the almshouses, also, considerately provide separate wards for the blind.

The society for the relief of the destitute blind of New York and its vicinity, is a private corporation, established in 1869. It provides a home for the blind of good character, on terms according to circumstances, and accommodates about seventy inmates. This home owns property valued at nearly a quarter of a million dollars, and its expenditures aggregate about \$25,000 annually. A few other like homes exist in various parts of the United States.

The Pennsylvania working home for blind men, in the city of Philadelphia (incorporated in 1874), is practically a workshop for blind workmen, with a boarding-house attached. It is under private control, but is not self-supporting and is maintained in part by state and city appropriations and by voluntary contributions. The trades followed are the making of brooms, brushes, mattresses, rag carpet, and caning of chairs, which are said to be the easiest to learn and the most profitable for the blind to follow. The home reports 355 beneficiaries, of whom about twenty-nine per cent are married, with families dependent on them for support.

Institutions with like purposes exist in some of the other states.

A home for the deaf, established in 1872, is located at Wappingers Falls, N. Y. Its objects are to promote the temporal and spiritual welfare of adult deaf mutes; to minister to the sick and needy, and to get work for the unemployed. Aged infirm deaf mutes are received at this home on terms according to their circumstances. Those unable to pay are received free of charge. The property of the institution is valued at about \$80,000 and provision is afforded for twenty-five inmates.¹

VII.—HOMES FOR SOLDIERS AND SAILORS.

The United States government has established eight national homes for honorably discharged, disabled volunteer soldiers, in accordance with the provisions of section 4830 of the United States revised statutes, approved March 21, 1866, and other laws.

These are, the eastern at Togus, Maine, opened in 1866; the central at Dayton, opened in 1867; the northwestern, near Milwaukee, opened in 1867; the southern, near Hampton, Va., opened in 1870; the western, near Leavenworth, opened in 1885; the Pacific, near St. Monica, Cal., opened in 1888, and the Dansville, near Dansville, Ill., opened in 1898. These homes occupy 4,538.02 acres of land, valued at \$270,687.09. The buildings cost \$5,110,621.10, the total investment being \$5,381,308.19. The

¹ Report state board of charities, New York, 1899.

whole number of inmates (known as members) cared for during the year ending June 30, 1898, was 27,332, and the total cost of support amounted to \$2,186,697.79, or \$117.84 for each member.

Various states have also provided homes for their soldiers, until there are now twenty-nine such homes, the United States government, in accordance with the provisions of an act of congress, passed August 27, 1888, paying for every disabled soldier or sailor who may be admitted and cared for in such homes, at the rate of \$100 per annum. For the year ending June 30, 1898, the state homes had 9,333 members paid for by the national government.¹

A number of the southern and southwestern states have provided homes for disabled confederate soldiers, while Missouri, and possibly other states, maintains homes for soldiers of both the north and the south.

The sailors' snug harbor at New Brighton, Staten Island, N. Y., is a private corporation established in 1801, and richly endowed by the will of Captain Robert R. Randall, which gratuitously provides a comfortable home for aged, decrepit or worn-out sailors. The value of the property of the institution exceeds \$8,000,000; the annual expenditures for the year ending September 30, 1898, aggregated \$469,646.27; and the number of inmates cared for was 1,043.²

VIII—TEMPORARY HOMES AND SHELTERS.

Temporary homes and shelters for destitute adults, of one or both sexes, are common in the cities of the United States, and minister to the needs of the temporarily homeless and the vagrant. Annually through their doors come and go a great army of the most unfortunate of humanity. Some of these homes are free, while others charge a small amount to their patrons.

The cities of Boston, Springfield (Mass.), Washington, New York, and Syracuse have established public shelters for this class, while Philadelphia has two, managed by the Philadelphia society for organizing charity, and maintained in part by public funds.

These are known as wayfarers' lodges, or municipal lodging houses, and properly conducted are capable of much good. Some of them compel the lodgers to wash before retiring; others, in addition, disinfect their clothing; while still others add to the discomfort of their guests by requiring them to render some return in labor, such as sawing wood, or breaking stone, for the assistance they receive. Though charities of a rather uninteresting nature, they render a distinctive public service in the suppression of the tramp evil.

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PREVENTIVE WORK.¹

(AMERICAN PHILANTHROPY OF THE NINETEENTH CENTURY.)

BY JOSEPH LEE.

IV—THE CHILDREN.

New England towns founded during the seventeenth century usually had commons, originally used for the pasturage of cattle, and afterwards for the May and October "training," which consisted of a more or less convivial assembly of all the freemen under arms. A great many of them still survive, and in most instances they are used as public recreation grounds. I find fourteen within the present metropolitan park district of Boston.

Apart from this fortunate survival of an opportunity originally provided for another purpose, our American cities and towns seem to have had little or no provision for play until a very recent time, a neglect which the ab-

sence of large cities formerly made a matter of comparatively little importance. The sense of the need of some municipal provision of the sort may be said to have stirred in its sleep during the sixties, when the city of Boston provided (in 1866) ten public baths, free to all the inhabitants, the most important one consisting in the provision of a place to dress at a point on the beach in South Boston where the boys had bathed from time immemorial. Ten years later New York followed this example with four floating baths. (It added two the next year and since 1889 has had fifteen such baths.)

In the early 70's came the organized sending of children on country outings, although of this there had

Playground
Era Begins.

Village improvement.
Factory villages.

iv. The children :

For little children :
Vacation schools.
Summer playgrounds.
Outings.

For larger boys and girls :
Playgrounds.
Baths.
Gymnasiums.
Boys' clubs.
Trade education.

For all the children :
School improvement.

v. Grown people :

Parks.
Social resources.
Educational provisions.
Modifying of industrial conditions.

¹ Synopsis of paper :

i. Before 1860 :

Libraries.
Lowell, as a pioneer manufacturing town.

ii. Savings and loans :

Collection.
Stamp savings.
School savings.
Savings banks.
Building and loan associations.
Philanthropic loans.

iii. The home :

Building laws.
Rent collection.
Model tenements.
Model lodging houses.
Separate homes, in factory villages and otherwise.
The city or town as site of the home :
City sanitation and construction.

been some small beginnings as long ago as 1849.¹ But the real beginning of the new era came when in 1879 Miss Mary E. Very, a public school teacher in Boston, started a vacation school, the first that I know of, the support of which was contributed in part by the woman's education association. Since this beginning, the supplying of opportunity to children for play and education outside of the school has spread all over the country. The work for little children has divided into two distinct streams,—provision of summer schools, and provision of playgrounds. Finally, attention has begun to be paid to the larger boys and girls, and for them have been provided gymnasiums and in-town playgrounds.

**Vacation
Schools.**

The vacation school is carried on for boys and girls from the age of two up to the age of twenty and over. These schools were started largely with the idea of keeping the children out of mischief; their main effort at first, therefore, was to provide an attraction greater than the street, and play and amusement furnished the chief part of the program. As the work developed, however, two distinct needs have been recognized, one being the craving on the part of children, big and little, for some sort of regular and definite occupation—including constructive work for their hands—for a part of each day; the other being the need for free play. Following these two needs the original play-

school has become differentiated into two distinct institutions, the vacation school and the sand garden, or children's playground. In the case of the older boys and girls, for whom the difference between work and play is more definite, the distinction between school and playground is now clearly marked; but, especially with the younger children, there still remains a hazy borderland in which it is difficult to classify a given specimen. One "school" for instance, that I know of, consists principally of a large room where the children come and do pretty much as they please under the able guidance of a young woman of much tact with a gift for managing children.

At the other extreme we have schools, of which those at Cambridge are the type, in which regularity of attendance is insisted upon, a child being dropped and another substituted from a considerable waiting list for two unexplained absences. Schools of this class make a regular practice of looking up children in their homes in case of absence. The belief of their managers is that they thus avoid one of the objections that has been made to vacation schools, namely, that they get the children into the habit of thinking that the school is merely a place to play, where no regularity is required. They also find that the strictness does not make the school unpopular, but quite the reverse, the scholars not only getting more benefit from regu-

¹ Ufford, "fresh air charity in the United States," pp. 14-7.

lar than from desultory work, but showing more appreciation of it, and usually begging to be allowed to make up for any time which they have lost, waiting on the steps "in hopes that some other feller will be sick," and so make room for them. As a rule reports show that it is easy to fill a vacation school; but it is not always easy to keep up a full and enthusiastic attendance. It is remarkable, for instance, that the attendance in the New York schools in 1899 became less each of the six weeks of their term. The Cambridge schools, on the other hand, and the schools of the civic league in Boston, which are run on the Cambridge plan, are kept full from their waiting list, and the attendance in these schools averages about 93 per cent of their capacity.

**What They
Are.**

A vacation school for little children is usually much the same as a kindergarten. As the children get older it begins, as a rule, to introduce more of definite manual training, in most cases following pretty closely the ideas, frequently the actual models, of the sloyd system. When we come to the boys and girls of the grammar-school age (ten to fourteen), the carpentry (or sloyd) frequently occupies a part, often as much as an hour and a half, of each day. Other features almost always found, graduated to suit the needs of children of different ages, are: some sort of drawing, whether with brush, charcoal, or pencil, decorative or partly from na-

ture; singing; various kinds of manual and industrial training, such as sewing, cooking, dress-making, basket-weaving, modeling; and nature-study. The manual and industrial training is related in almost every instance to the family life, or at least to some purpose and need, whether of the family, or of the individual child. In a few cases it is definite training for a trade. The nature study frequently includes excursions to parks, or to woods, or farms in the country. No text-books are used, but story-books are not uncommon. The usual length of the session is three hours. Many schools have two sets of children, one coming in the morning, and one in the afternoon. Mothers' meetings are one of the methods used for keeping a close touch with the home. The term is from four to eight weeks, in the great majority of cases six weeks. The schools are usually located in public school buildings, the use of which is granted by the city or town, and one finds the rooms appropriately decorated for the summer work. Most schools employ regular professional teachers (who sometimes give their services), and it is more necessary to do so than in the regular schools. The cost per child per day, as reported, varies from less than five cents to more than twenty-five.

In the ten New York schools, which may be taken as a type of what the large public vacation school is going to be, the term in 1899 was six weeks, the average attendance in

each school was 426 (4,260 in all); the average class was thirty, the daily cost per pupil present was thirteen and four-tenths cents,¹ total cost of schools, \$17,166. The supplies cost somewhat more than the teachers, an exceptional state of things, to be attributed to the large number of experiments in industrial work.² (A different industrial occupation was tried in every school, this being one of the many instances of the use of vacation schools as experiment stations.) Each child was given three barge excursions on the Hudson river, the East river, and the sound, respectively. There were in addition excursions by railroad for some of the children.³

Massachusetts. Since Miss Very's beginning in 1878 many vacation schools have been started in Boston, some five of them (the earliest in 1881) by different conferences of the associated charities. There are now about fifteen to twenty such schools in Boston (according to how one draws the line between vacation schools and playgrounds). Eleven of these had in 1899 a total enrolment of about 2,488 pupils, with an average attendance of about 1,684. Many of them include kindergartens.

Boston had besides, in 1900, three public vacation schools, an act having been passed by the Massachusetts legislature of 1899 (chapter 246) permitting the establishment of such schools by cities and towns. The city of Cambridge and the towns of Andover and Brookline have also taken advantage of this permission.

In Brookline the town took the initiative, in 1900. In Cambridge the schools had been carried on since 1896 by private citizens. Cambridge has, besides, two private summer schools and two kindergartens.

In Andover vacation schools were first started in 1898 and the number of pupils enroled in 1900 was 103, the average attendance 85, the number of teachers 12, including one kindergartner and three untrained teachers. There are several very interesting features at Andover which show how a country town may take advantage of the fact that it is country and not city. For instance, the boys started out one morning and formed a logging camp, chopping and hauling out the trees needed for a log cabin, and the carpentry work every alternate day consisted in work upon it. The cabin was used for holding a sale and exhibition at the end of the term. A great expense of sloyd work in the city is the cost of wood, and therefore only small things are made; but at Andover, according to the account of their work in the paper the pupils printed, they made, among other things, "kites, weaving machines, ships, and tables." The ships were probably not full-sized men-of-war. The school also had a fishing-class which caught fish from the neighboring brooks and ponds and made drawings of each kind in their note books. They also made a study of butterflies, and had classes in gardening and swimming, "For," as one of the girls says in the summer school *Record*, "it is nice to be able

¹ 1899 report, pp. 41 and following.

² In 1898 the cost was seven cents a day per pupil for teachers and janitors, and three cents for supplies.

³ Anybody who wants to know about vacation school work may get much information from the two reports for 1898 and 1899 of the New York schools, although the present writer can hardly believe that the illustrations given represent the average and real result of the teaching.

to swim should one be in danger of drowning." The government of this school was carried on by a committee elected by the pupils, of which the superintendent of schools was the chairman.

New York. In New York the association for improving the condition of the poor started vacation schools in 1894 in four of the public school buildings. The work was taken over by the city in 1898 and in 1899 was carried on in ten school-yards for a period of six weeks, as described above.

The following list of models used in the knife work in New York is interesting as showing what I think may be claimed as typical of vacation school work; namely, a full appreciation of the true sloyd principle that the child should be employed upon things which he understands the use of, so that the work shall be self-criticising and self-rewarding. Among the things made in 1898 were string-winders, plant labels, weather vanes, key tags, paper knives, picture frames, flower-pot stands, easels, and toy horses.

A fact worth noting is that the ten vacation schools in New York are all in the Jew quarter; and the same is true of the "evening play-centers" mentioned below. The Jews are noted for knowing a good thing when they see it, and the fact that these schools and clubs have succeeded among them is not taken by some earnest workers as a proof that they will succeed elsewhere.

Other Places Newark was one of the first cities in the country to start vacation schools, having commenced in 1886. In 1900, there were eleven schools with 102 teachers,

4,633 pupils enrolled, an average attendance of 2,917, and a total cost of \$5,206.

In 1898 the Philadelphia school board started three vacation schools in response to a petition from the civic club. Manual training and weekly excursions, paid for from private sources, are the main features. In 1900 the number of schools was increased from three to five, and a superintendent was employed.

The civic federation of Chicago started a vacation school in 1896. In 1898 the matter was taken over by a joint committee of the women's clubs including prominent educators. In 1900 there were three schools, about 1,300 pupils, average attendance about ninety per cent., cost about \$4,000, term six weeks.¹ The Chicago work centres around the country excursions taken once a week, which are kept well up to an educational standard, not degenerating into picnics.² There is special teaching for the deaf.

The work in Brooklyn began in 1897, as a result of the teaching of John Graham Brooks, and was taken over in 1898 by the city of New York. It consisted at that time of five playgrounds and one school. In 1899 Brooklyn had five vacation schools and two playgrounds carried on by greater New York.

Cincinnati has one school, started by the woman's club in 1899. In that year the number of scholars enrolled was 131, there was a waiting list of 125, an average attendance of ninety-three, six teachers, and an expense of \$275. There was an excursion and a mothers' meeting with music and flowers every week.

Washington has a school, first started in 1899, which had 315 pu-

¹ Report for 1900

² The Chicago work has been particularly interesting. For further information see articles by Miss Sadie American, of Chicago, in the *American Journal of Sociology*, November, 1898, and the excellent illustrated reports of the work.

The daily excursions, of twenty children each, of the three schools of the civic league in Boston start at one o'clock, after the children have had their dinner, and no food is supplied.

pils in 1900, with an average attendance of 280, and thirteen teachers. The services of the teachers were gratuitous, and the children took care of the building, so that the only expenses were for material, excursions, etc., of which the children paid a part, leaving \$25 only to be raised.

Vacation schools were started in Hartford in 1897. In 1900 there were three regular schools with an enrolment of 998, an average attendance of 637, fifteen regular and seven special teachers. The cost for the six weeks was \$1,627. The committee in charge carried on three playgrounds and four school reading-rooms, making a total of 2,114 children, thirty-one teachers, and an expense of \$1,864. The city appropriated \$1,900, more than covering the expense.

Vacation schools have been started in the following, among other, places: Buffalo, four schools, started by the teachers' association in 1898, 666 enrolled in 1899; Indianapolis (public), 1898; Syracuse, started by the mothers' club in 1898, having in 1900 two schools carried on by the school committee with 553 pupils, nine teachers, an average attendance of 528, a term of five weeks, and a total cost of \$722. Milwaukee has a vacation school of four hundred boys and girls, started by the woman's club of Wisconsin in 1899; in New Haven one was started in 1899 by the woman's school association, where special attention is paid to giving the children a chance to enjoy good books. Providence started in 1899, has 488 enrolled, an average attendance of 220, twelve teachers, a cost of \$1,085, and a six weeks' term. Nonantum (in Newton, Mass.) has a school carried on by the social science club, one hundred scholars in 1899. New Britain, Conn., had a school as early as

1899, carried on by the woman's club, fifty scholars; Newburyport, Mass., one school, started by the associated charities in 1898, fifty pupils; Waltham, Mass., one started in 1899, of the Cambridge dispensation, 156 pupils; Cleveland began in 1897 and Baltimore in 1898; Lowell, one school, started in 1899. In Worcester there were two vacation schools on the Cambridge model, with a total enrolment of 168 and an average attendance of about ninety-three per cent in 1900, in charge of the woman's club. There are also schools in Lynn and Chelsea, Mass.

Their Normal Season.

As we have seen, vacation schools are already carried on to a considerable extent by the public school authorities; and it is obvious that in the future they are to be a regular part of the public school system. How far the subjects and methods of these schools are going to be adopted into our winter curriculum is a question which I can not here discuss, but there is another question of equal importance; namely, at what times of the year the summer school program, as distinguished from that of the winter school, shall begin and end. The first thing we shall discover when we come to study this question will be that the period of the summer work must be longer than the present summer vacation. One sees it frequently stated (and I have never seen it contradicted) that the great and well-known summer increase in juvenile law-breaking is a question of vacation; but this is not the case. As the following table shows, the increase

comes not in July, but in March, and continues not merely into September, but to an almost equal degree into October. The law-breakers are not the most important part of the juvenile community, but the excess of law-breaking in the warmer part of the year may be an indication of a condition which it is the business of the summer school to meet.

Average number of arrests of minors in Boston by months for the years 1889 to 1899, inclusive (from the police reports):

Month.	Average.	Month.	Average.
December	363	June	448
January	372	July	520*
February	326	August	477
March	395	September	456
April	401	October	430
May	434	November	376

*Fourth of July has its effects.

Their Educational Meaning.

It is a singular instance of that good fortune which seems to attend our country that our vacation schools were started by people whose leading idea was not to start a school, but simply to find out what was best for the children, and to do it, their search for the best being wholly untroubled by any preconceived idea as to what they ought to find. Following the needs of the children as these needs were developed by actual contact, and profiting by experience as to what seemed to meet those needs and to produce beneficial results, they have invented a new institution. The fact that it is also an old institution and is called a school has occupied too thoroughly subordinate a position in the minds of its promoters to prejudice their inquiry, or to prevent them from freely adopt-

ing whatever was found in practice to be good, without reference to the question of whether or not it had received the label of education.

The fact that so many groups of people, starting independently upon this single-minded quest in so many places, have arrived with practical unanimity at the same conclusions is remarkable testimony to the value of the occupations and the procedure which they have adopted. The leading facts that the vacation schools now stand for are: First, that children crave, except for brief vacations of a week or so, some sort of regular occupation: and when one thinks of what twelve hours—10 A. M. to 10 P. M.—of unmitigated sidewalk, day in and day out for three months, must mean, it is obvious that this must be true of the city child. Second, the vacation school stands for the fact that among the occupations so needed, a very important place is held by creative or constructive work. When a boy will sit for hours on the front steps of a school house, waiting for a possible chance to get in and do a little sloyd work, it means that nature has placed in him a hunger for such work, without the satisfaction of which she can not accomplish in him the object she had in view. Another fact established is that nature study, that is to say, a study of growing and other natural objects with a view to obtaining a sympathetic knowledge of the life of plants and animals and of the working of physi-

cal laws, is also a natural craving of the child.

The summer playground for little children may be said to centre around the sand-box, namely, a box like a hot-bed (the width of which ought not to exceed ten feet, because if it is wider it becomes difficult to pick a child out of the middle) with a cover which can be locked at night to prevent the sand from being stolen. Experience shows that the one thing the small child likes to do more than any other is to put sand into a pail and turn it out again. In the streets one may see them any day performing the same operation with the dirt from the street and a broken bottle or tomato can, selecting the doorstep or the edge of the sidewalk as a convenient laboratory table. The sand-pile the masons make when a house is going up is always covered with children, and all parents and nurses know that little children enjoy the seashore largely for its sand-digging privileges. In addition to the sand-box the only necessary provisions are a trained and tactful kindergartner with a good assistant, a little shade, and benches. There are hundreds of other things which are found in these playgrounds. Games played in New York in 1898 (where, as will be seen from the list, some of the children were old enough to play games re-

quiring considerable organization) were, in the order of their popularity, basket-ball, shuffle-board, ring-toss, drop the handkerchief, ninepins, "ball," handball, sack races, hand tennis, and bean-bag. A feature of the sand-gardens in Boston is the express carts in which two children are harnessed and drag about one or two babies as passengers,—a happy recognition of the fact, illustrated on every sidewalk, that children like to drag anything that makes a noise. The various games where they stand in a ring are especially popular with the small children. A game that seems to appeal to an abiding instinct is ring-toss, leading up to quoits, which men of all ages like to play.²

Schoolyards are mostly too small and become too crowded for the more competitive running and ball games. Those in vogue are, in brief, somewhat like what are encountered at a Christmas party, with some more reposeful ones thrown in.

Children can not play all the time, and there is always a strong demand not only for quiet games but for some form of constructive work, chiefly sewing of different kinds.

But with the little children it is a question not so much of what game is played as of how it is conducted. Almost every kind of game and kindergarten apparatus is useful, provided one does not have too many things; and the range, and rank in

¹ See the very important and interesting article by Miss Sadie American, *American Journal of Sociology*, November, 1898, p. 159; *Atlantic*, April, 1899, pp. 533-6; Charles Zeublin, *American Journal of Sociology*, September, 1898, p. 145.

² See under playgrounds for big boys, below.

popularity, of the different things will be the same as that in the home—nothing, of course, being more thrilling to the child than performing some service to the state or family, such as carting off the loose stones, making scrap-books for use in the playground, or sewing the doll's clothes. The best location is a park where there is shade, and excellent places are found in school-yards or on recreation piers. Where shade is not otherwise to be found, a tent or, wooden shelter should be erected.

**Mothers and
Little Mothers.**

Every "play-centre" is as a resting-place where the mothers and the little girls who so often have charge of the babies and of children only one size smaller than themselves can come and rest. That is why sand-gardens ought always to be supplied with plenty of chairs or benches. They ought also to be much more frequent than they are as yet in any city; the effective radius of a resting place for a mother who does not own a baby wagon can not be much over a quarter of a mile.¹

These playgrounds are usually carried on for ten weeks in summer, but the outdoor recreation league of New York has shown that the proper season for them is nearly as many months. I have seen their children's playground in full swing as late as December 20; and the Massachusetts civic league did not close their sand-

gardens in Boston this year until November 17. In New York and Chicago they are open morning and afternoon; in Boston the majority are open about **three hours**, and that, I think, is the rule elsewhere.

The expense under careful management is ten cents per child per week.

Big Boys.

Sand-gardens, as I have said, are intended especially for the younger children. In New York, however, provision is made also in the same place for the older boys and girls. In Chicago the policy of combining the older boys with the children has been pursued, but so much difficulty has been encountered that the committee now favors a division of the time between the different ages, as is done in St. Louis. In Boston the yards are carried on especially for the smaller children, except three for the older boys, fitted up with ladders, horizontal bars, vaulting blocks, Indian clubs, and a basketball outfit. In some of the yards there has been trouble from the tough boys who gather on the outside and sometimes invade the yards; on the other hand, an interesting but pathetic experience, showing the unsatisfied hunger for constructive work on the part of a street boy, is the discovery that boys up to the age of fifteen, and often the very toughest ones, seem delighted with an opportunity to do a little sewing or to work on a perforated card or the

¹ The Ruggles street baptist church in Boston lends baby-wagons.

like,¹ and some of the sand-gardens are performing useful service for boys of this age, pending a more thorough covering of the ground by the vacation schools. A teacher in New York tamed a gang of young toughs by getting them to glue together some disks used in the playgrounds.

**The First
Sand-Garden.**

In 1886 Dr. Marie E. Zakrzewska wrote to the chairman of the executive committee of the Massachusetts emergency and hygiene association, saying that in the public parks of Berlin there were heaps of sand in which children, rich and poor, were allowed to dig and play, as if on a mimic seashore, under the care of the police of the city. That year "three piles of yellow sand were placed in the yards of the children's mission, Parmenter street chapel, and Warrenton street chapel." Next year there were ten heaps in the courts of tenement houses and elsewhere and one heap for the first time in the yard of a schoolhouse to be used in connection with a vacation school. That year the daily average attendance was 400 and special matrons were employed for the first time. "Since then the necessity for trained teachers has grown with the growth of the work. No yard is now without one or more guardians who have had instruction in kindergarten methods." The number of playgrounds carried on by this society had increased by the summer of 1900 to twenty-one, twenty of these in schoolyards. The average attendance was about 4,000 and the expense a little over \$4,000, of which \$3,000 has, for the

last two years, been supplied by the school committee.

The children at first seemed to have little play instinct. Their favorite games were playing "house" and "funeral," especially the latter, which consists in carrying out the real ceremony and interment as nearly as possible. We gather from Sewall's diary that going to funerals used to be the chief amusement of the Puritans, but it seems a little hard that children who are not their descendants should inherit this grizzly form of amusement at this distance of time.

Similar in object and methods to the sand-gardens are the small play-rooms. There are seven of these carried on by the episcopal city mission of Boston during July and August for children under fourteen, the hours being from 8.30 to 12.30 in the morning, the daily average in 1900, 850; and some ten others in Boston, and one in Chicago. They merge into the vacation school.

**Later
History.**

Sand-gardens were started in Providence in 1894 by the free kindergarten association. In 1898 there were four, with an average daily attendance of 384. The apparatus includes a piano, and the occupations include the vacation school features of sloyd and nature study.

In 1893 two summer playgrounds were started in Philadelphia by philanthropic people. In 1895 the city councils, in response to a petition from the civic club and a large number of other organizations, opened the available schoolyards, four of which were equipped as sand-gardens, and appropriated \$1,000 to carry on these latter.² Every year

¹ Boston experience, from Miss E. M. Tower, the chief promoter.

² Partly from *Municipal Affairs*, June, 1898, pp. 297-8. Compare *American Journal of Sociology*, November, 1898, p. 161.

since then councils have appropriated \$3,000. Since 1898 there have been twenty-seven public sand-gardens in the poor and overcrowded districts of the city, of areas varying from 2,500 to 6,000 square feet. In some of the yards there are trees, and where these do not afford sufficient shade, shelter tents are provided. The yards are under the charge of the board of education, which has the co-operation of the civic club. Every yard has a teacher and a janitor.

The Richard Smith memorial building, erected under a legacy at a cost of \$50,000, in Fairmount park, a large and well-equipped building, is used as a playhouse for children under ten years of age. All kinds of games and sports are provided.

The police and business men testify to a "marked decrease in youthful crime" in the districts where the playgrounds are located. It is further testified that the children return to school in a better state of discipline and that their moral tone is raised. There were in 1897 seven other sand-gardens in Philadelphia carried on by churches.¹

Chicago. The first summer playground in Chicago was started by a conference of the associated charities in the year 1897.² In 1899 there were six carried on eight weeks by the women's clubs, all of them in schoolyards, toward the expenses of which the city council, with the approval of Mayor Harrison, appropriated \$1,000, which

sum was supplemented by contributions of \$818. The board of education granted not only the yards but the basements, a room on the first floor with a piano, bath and toilet rooms, and such gymnastic apparatus as there was in the building. In 1900 the number was the same; the cost, \$1,250.

The gymnastic side is emphasized more in Chicago than is the case with these small summer playgrounds elsewhere, except perhaps in New York. There is tumbling, jumping, and a tan-bark pit; the turn-verein has loaned parallel and horizontal bars, ladders, etc., and some of the instructors are skilled turners. This is a part of the policy of attracting the older boys to which I have alluded above.³

Important conclusions reached by the Chicago committee are that these small yards should have (1) plenty of attendants, some of whom should be trained gymnasts; limited hours, in order that the attendants may be fresh and aggressive all the time in their work; (2) plenty of apparatus, including a tanbark pit and, of course, including sand; (3) a high fence to aid in maintaining discipline; and, what I believe to be the most important idea of all, (4) that the season for such yards should not be merely six or eight weeks, allowing just time enough to get started, but should be from May to October, like the Charlesbank one of the emergency and hygiene association in Boston. I believe that from March to December would be better still.⁴

¹ *Municipal Affairs*, June, 1898, pp. 297-8.

² See articles by Miss Sadie American in *American Journal of Sociology*, November, 1898, pp. 159-70, and by Prof. Charles Zeublin, same, September, 1898, pp. 145-58.

³ For a very valuable discussion of the ways of meeting the various difficulties which confront those carrying on a summer playground in a crowded city, see the 1899 report, pp. 38-52, one of the most suggestive and open-minded discussions on the subject to be found.

⁴ See experience cited above at Seward park, New York, and North End playground, Boston. The opinion that big and little children should have different hours has been noted above.

In Baltimore, summer sand-gardens were started in 1897, and in 1899 there were eight carried on by the children's playground association of the united women of Maryland, seven of which were in school-yards and one in a public park. Besides the sand and games there was clay-modeling and sewing, and there were in every yard one or more trained kindergartners as directors. In 1899 basket-making was added, an instructor of manual training was provided, and lessons were given in wood and ironwork to classes of boys in all the playgrounds.

Sand-gardens in Brooklyn were started in 1897. The next year Brooklyn became a part of the greater New York and its sand-gardens have since been under the New York school committee. There were two in 1899.

They reach
New York.

Previous to 1898 there were some half-dozen private playgrounds in New York, including one carried on by Miss Grace Dodge all the year round in the years 1896 and 1897, and a children's playground behind the nurses' settlement, started in 1895 and carried on under a wistaria vine for five years in the summer and early fall, where they sometimes gave magic lantern parties in the evening.¹

Mayor Strong's committee on small parks, of which Abram S. Hewitt was chairman and Jacob A. Riis was secretary, reported October 28, 1897, that "New York has as yet not a single municipal playground, and not yet a school playground

worthy of the name;"² the only school playground, indeed, "is an old cemetery." The next year, however, when the school committee took over the vacation schools of the association for improving the condition of the poor, it established twenty school playgrounds or sand-gardens. In 1899 there were thirty-one places classed by the committee as "school play centres"—ten of these being in the morning devoted to the vacation schools above described—and in the latter year there were also under the charge of the committee five open-air gymnasiums, five "kindergarten tents," six recreation piers, three "sand-gardens with kindergarten games" in Central park, seven roof gardens, ten swimming baths, and six "evening play centres,"³ making "some seventy" places in all.⁴

The thirty-one "school playgrounds" were carried on six weeks;⁵ the highest attendance was 20,107; the lowest, 5,949. The average daily attendance at the six recreation piers was about eight hundred and fifty. The cost of all the playgrounds of every class was: salaries, including janitors, \$20,662; supplies, \$8,239; total, \$28,901.⁶ (The total cost of all the summer work in New York was \$47,111.) Each of the thirty-one school playgrounds had its gymnasium, basket-ball court, piano, and library with reading-room; and of course each had its sand-boxes, toys, and games.⁷ The school basements were available in case of rain, and

¹ *American Journal of Sociology*, November, 1898, p. 164; *Municipal Affairs*, June, 1898, p. 302. Riis says, however, in the *Atlantic*, September, 1899, p. 304, "New York never had a children's playground until within the last year."

² There are two sets of pages in this report. This statement is on the second page 3.

³ See 1899 report, p. 10. (See *boys' clubs*, below.) See also maps in report. A very interesting map, giving by color and shading the areas of high percentage of crime and of excessive density of population, as well as the location of the various play-places and open spaces and new schools, is in the report of Mayor Strong's committee of 1897.

⁴ Report, p. 6. ⁵ See, however, same, p. 7. ⁶ Same, p. 16-7. ⁷ Same, p. 10.

there were awnings to keep off the sun. There were in all seventeen outdoor "kindergarten play places."¹

These New York playgrounds are most systematically carried on, on plans carefully studied in advance by the school committee.² A special feature has been the attention paid to contests, both gymnastic and in games such as basket-ball and quoits.³

The New York playgrounds are popular with the parents as well as with the children,⁴ and the testimony from the teachers as to the good effects upon the children is strong and specific. They say that the children become easier to manage, quieter, play more fairly, are more polite, and that the older children become less unkind to the younger ones; also that the playgrounds are a great encouragement to children who are naturally slow at school work.⁵

One teacher reports, "As a whole the children take life too seriously; they need play and plenty of it." Of the "little mothers," who are sometimes only six or seven years old (reported as young as three and a half in Philadelphia⁶), it is said they often show a strong love for the children in their charge, and feel considerable pride in their attainments, one of them boasting, "My baby swear at his papa and mamma."

Among the boys the code of etiquette requires resistance from aggression by a boy of your own size, but there is no such requirement and never any instance of such resistance where the aggressor is a big boy.

A sand-garden was started in Minneapolis, by the Minneapolis improvement league, in a school-yard, in 1898. In 1899 there were two, of about two and a half and three acres respectively, one with a pavilion and the other with a shed for play on rainy days. Each had one teacher, and the expenses were \$275. Croquet is the most popular game.

The social science department of the woman's club of Denver started, June 10, 1898, a sand-garden in River front park. It was kept open till September 10, and the average attendance was about 180.

A sand-garden was opened by the park commission in Cleveland, in 1898, in Fairview park. In 1899 it was kept open from the first of May to the first of November, setting an example in the length of season which our eastern cities would do well to follow.

In Dayton, Ohio, the "N. C. R. kindergarten extension" playground was started in July, 1898, and is carried on by the company on its own grounds, consisting of about three or four acres, with trees, grass, clay in some places, and crossed by a small brook with a bed of rock, sand, and clay. On rainy days the children can play in the "N. C. R. house." It is under the charge of four teachers, and is open to children of the neighborhood under twelve years of age. Beside the usual sand-garden occupations there are also included the regular vacation school features of sloyd, drawing, modeling, and sewing, and also gymnasium and choral classes. There are also games such

¹ Same p. 29.

² See the interesting reports, with illustrations, for 1898 and 1899.

³ Same, p. 25.

⁴ 1898, report, pp. 83 and 85.

⁵ Same, pp. 88-9. Compare *American Journal of Sociology*, September, 1898, pp. 154-5.

⁶ *American Journal of Sociology*, November, 1898, p. 162.

as tether-ball, volley-ball, quoits, baseball, and races. The summer season for 1899 was July to September. The daily attendance varies from fifty to three hundred and twenty-five. The cost was \$300 for the summer.

The woman's civic league of St. Paul, in conjunction with the "St. Paul commons" settlement, carried on two sand-gardens of half an acre each from July 15 to September 1, 1899. Each has a teacher and an attendant, and one has baths and a gymnasium. The approximate average attendance was \$3,000, and the cost \$125.

In Cincinnati, in each of two of the small down-town parks in the crowded districts, there is a corner set aside for small children and fitted up with swings, sand-piles, etc. Also the women's civic league in 1899 put up a shed roof fifty by sixty feet, and enclosed a space about three hundred by fifty feet in an old market space, putting in a lot of apparatus and employing a competent care-taker during the summer.

The Wednesday club of St. Louis in July, 1900, started a school playground in a crowded district. The apparatus includes horizontal and parallel bars, and the games include basket-ball. There are two teachers and three other attendants, and the playground was open from July 1 to the first week in September. The mornings were reserved for the younger children and the afternoons for the bigger ones. An interesting feature is a shower-bath "of four batteries" in the school basement.

New Haven has two summer playgrounds, including a kindergarten. One of the yards has a bath-

room with a tub. The vacation school in New Haven grew out of the playground, from the perception that the children could not play all day long but wanted some regular occupation. Hartford (see *vacation schools*) has three.

There are three sand-gardens in Worcester, open for five weeks with an average attendance of 164, under the charge of a committee appointed by the woman's club.

Park Playgrounds. In Detroit the picnic grounds in Belle Isle park are provided with teeters, swings, and "may-poles." The reader may not know that a "may-pole" is a solid pole about eighteen feet high, with a swivel on ball bearings at the top, from which hang six or eight ropes with cross-pieces on the ends, which the children take hold of and then run round the pole, the centrifugal force taking them off their feet for a considerable part of the circuit—a demonstration of the working of physical laws which is considered highly satisfactory.

In Buffalo there is in one of the parks a space of ground about a pond where children wade, sail boats, and play in the sand and gravel on the banks; there is a "wading pool" at Worcester; and I suppose toy boat sailing is always allowed in park ponds, as it is in five in Boston.

There is a children's playground in Golden Gate park, San Francisco, without a sand-garden, but with such novel and pleasing features as donkeys to ride on, and goats dragging carts to be ridden in. Donkeys and baby carriages can be hired at Franklin park, Boston.¹

Recreation Piers.

The most ingenious device for supplying a good place for rest and recrea-

¹ The above facts have been obtained chiefly from reports and from answers to circulars sent round to the people in charge of the playgrounds in the various cities. See also *Municipal Affairs*, June, 1898, pp. 291 and following, and articles by Miss Sadie American in the *American Journal of Sociology*, November, 1898; also *American Journal of Sociology*, September, 1898.

tion has been the recreation piers originated in New York. These piers are built over wharf property and leave the wharf below open for use, thus avoiding a great part of the usual expense of securing such places, besides being, from the situation, peculiarly adapted for their purpose. Mr. Riis reports them a "roaring success." The first one was opened in July, 1897. There are now seven piers in New York and Brooklyn, of which the largest, at the foot of east Twenty-fourth street, is 722 feet long and cost \$250,000, of which, however, \$150,000 was for the wharf itself, which is still as useful as ever for commercial purposes. The piers are provided with settees, leaving a promenade floor the whole length of the pier, and are lighted by electricity, the longest one being at night, "next to the Brooklyn bridge, the most conspicuous structure on the East river."

They have music every week-day evening. The attendance at the Third street pier in 1897 ranged from 500 to 2,000 in the afternoons; in the evenings it averaged from 3,000 to 4,000, and on hot evenings ran as high as 7,000. In the daytime it is used by mothers and little children, the mothers buying lunch-eons which are sold at low prices by

the authorities. There are about sixteen to twenty-five attendants on each pier.

There is a reported demand for more soap in the neighborhood of these piers.¹

Philadelphia opened a play pier July 27, 1898, and the civic club gave concerts there.²

Boston has two piers connected with the North End park and two piers in shallow water, not available for wharf purposes, each 1,500 feet long, reaching from City point, one of them leading to Fort Independence.

**A Rapid
Advance.**

As the dates which I have given will show, the impulse from which the vacation schools and the summer playgrounds proceed is gaining momentum in a geometric ratio. After Miss Very began it in 1878, the progress was slow and was for some years confined to the city of Boston; but in the last three years the movement has taken on a remarkable impetus. It is impossible to obtain the facts and figures from all over the country, but I should think it a fair estimate to say that the number of such places and of the children in them had about doubled in 1898, and doubled again since.

¹ *Atlantic*, October, 1899, p. 535. Edward O'Brien, commissioner of docks, *Municipal Affairs* September, 1897, pp. 509-14 (illustrated). For locations, see map opposite p. 11 in 1899 report New York vacation schools

² Same.

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